DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 035 732 VT 009 936

AUTHOR	Rubin, Leonard, Ed.
TITLE	An Annotated Bibliography on the Employment of Disadvantaged Youth, 1960-1966.
INSTITUTION	Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	May 69
NOTE	76p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036 ($2.00)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.50 HC-$3.90
DESCRIPTORS	*Annotated Bibliographies, *Disadvantaged Youth, Educational Problems, *Employment Problems, *Rehabilitation, Training, Vocational Rehabilitation, *Youth Problems

ABSTRACT

The bibliography is divided into four parts. Section I provides an overview of the subject of employment and employability. A second section deals with the social, psychological, and educational aspects of employment. Section III surveys social, psychological, and educational rehabilitation and vocational training programs. The last section provides critical observations on policies and programs. A total of 1,500 articles were examined for the bibliography but only 150 were selected. Government documents and books were excluded because of the time and staff restrictions and wide availability. The racial aspects of the problem were not included because of the obvious correlation between race and employment problems. Most of the annotations cover the scope of the article but in some cases where the article is very long the annotation is selective. (BC)

ED035732

AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON THE EMPLOYMENT OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH 1960-1966

Leonard Rubin
editor

BUREAU OF SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH, INC.
WASHINGTON, D. C.

VT009936

ED035732

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON THE EMPLOYMENT OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH, 1960-1966

Leonard Rubin

Editor

Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc.
Washington, D. C.

May 1969

CONTENTS

	Page
Introduction	v
Organization of the Annotated Bibliography	ix
Annotated Bibliography	1
Selected Bibliography	65
Alphabetical Index of Authors for the Annotated Bibliography	69
Alphabetical Index of Authors for the Selected Bibliography	71

INTRODUCTION

Those concerned with the employment of disadvantaged youth tend to be confronted with problems that derive from two sources: personal factors affecting the employability of each youth including, usually, his education, attitude and behavior; and external factors such as labor market conditions, employment policies and job descriptions established by employers, and attitudes of supervisors and other workers on the job. To work knowledgeably in this area with its complex arrangement of factors that overlap the bounds of any single discipline requires familiarity with economics, education, psychology, and sociology, and with related technical fields. However, the variety of contributions and the great number of professional and technical journals in which they appear, make it difficult to maintain contact with the flux of information and ideas. Moreover, because these articles range broadly and are often quite disparate in approach, it is sometimes difficult to focus them on the matter at hand: the employment and employability of disadvantaged youth.

It is the purpose of this bibliography to serve as a resource in this subject area. The annotations are intended to acquaint users in a general way with the pertinent substantive issues of the materials. The first section includes references that address both employability and employment, providing an overview of the subject. In the second section, various aspects of the two are covered separately. Employability is considered first in terms of its social and psychological aspects, then in its educational aspects; the third portion of this section deals with employment in terms of occupational choice, access and status. Employment programs for disadvantaged youth are the subject of section three which has two parts: programs of remediation and rehabilitation relevant to the social, psychological and educational problems of employability in general; and those concerned more specifically with vocational training. The final section of annotations presents critical observations on some policies and programs.

The object, then, has been to institute at least a semblance of order among these diverse items by presenting the annotations in a sequence moving from general statements of conditions or goals, through a series of more narrowly focused considerations of the subject, to summaries of specific programs and policy problems. The difficulty of arriving at a more substantial theoretical framework is exemplified by the divergent and, at times, conflicting views that have been included. Although this bibliography represents an attempt to outline the subject, employment and employability of disadvantaged youth, it remains nevertheless a bibliography and not a substantial statement of the subject.

Some notes on scope and method will clarify the editorial procedures. First, the annotations vary in type. Most attempt to

cover the substance of the article, but when an article is too long or complex to be so condensed, the annotation is selective. In these cases the portions not substantively summarized are given a short reference to avoid too great a distortion. When sections of an article are not of uniform importance in terms of the purposes of this bibliography, the less relevant portions are not referred to at all. Occasionally, when an article, or a series of articles, is deemed pertinent but either too long or not sufficiently pithy, annotations have been restricted to a short reference to the contents.

Of the 1,500 articles perused, only 150 seemed sufficiently trenchant to be included. Many rejected articles tended either to be too superficial or to be essentially rhetorical rather than analytical. Other articles were rejected on the grounds of being too oblique to the purposes of this limited study, focusing on the specific concerns of a discipline or the practice of a profession without coming directly to bear on youth problems and programs.

Because of restrictions on time and staff, the kinds of material surveyed were limited. Generally excluded were books, government documents and items concerning youth outside the United States. Books were omitted because of the difficulty of annotating them, and government publications because they tend to be well known and are usually available in departmental libraries. Materials on youth from other countries were left out because it was felt the addition of still another factor, that of a foreign culture, would further complicate an already complex subject.

Further limitations were set concerning subjects to be included. The racial aspects of the problems were excluded partly because they would pull in the complex question of civil rights and partly because correlations between race and problems in employment and employability are obvious. Since the emphasis of this bibliography is on disadvantaged youth, material on academic high school graduates and on college students was not included. Since the physically and mentally handicapped constitute a different problem and require different services, material on them was also excluded.

Only two of the several periodical indexes were surveyed: The Public Affairs Information Service Index and The Education Index. These have the most complete subject breakdowns of all the general indexes available, and together they cover much of the relevant periodical literature. In the Public Affairs Information Service Index, the subject headings examined were: apprenticeship, education, employee training, employment, juvenile delinquency, social services, social welfare, student withdrawals, technical education, unemployment, vocational education, vocational guidance, work, workers' education, and youth. In The Education Index, these topics were examined: apprentices, cooperative education, curriculum, education (and manpower needs), employee training, employment, group work, high school

students, juvenile delinquency, personality, personnel service, social, student achievement, student withdrawals (also listed as dropouts), technical education, vocational, work, and youth. In all cases, relevant subheadings and cross-references were pursued.

The Sociological Abstracts and the Psychological Abstracts are, of course, other major resources in which relevant work may be discovered, particularly results of empirical investigations. However, to have included them would have confronted the editor, much more directly than in the cases of the two listed above, with difficult decisions about the relevance to the topic under examination of research reports of largely academic orientation. Poverty and Human Resources Abstracts is an additional source of pertinent information but because of time limitations was also omitted.

The Department of Labor and the Office of Education each support extensive research on the subject area covered by this bibliography. Both ongoing and completed work in the Department of Labor is listed in an annual publication, Manpower Research Projects. In the Office of Education, the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) publishes a monthly compilation, Research in Education, as well as an annual index to the monthly reports. Both provide descriptions of the research in their periodic listings. The Science Information Exchange of the Smithsonian Institution provides information retrieval services and also maintains files for ongoing unpublished research. Searches by subject, and other types of searches, may be obtained for reasonable fees.

It is hoped that the resources noted above and in the final section of selected bibliographies will supply sufficient references beyond what has been annotated to make the overall presentation useful to those who wish to look more deeply into these problems.

For aid and advice, I am most grateful to Sigmund Berkman, Robert Goldstein and Camille Joel. The staffs of the Libraries of the Department of Labor and of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare eased the task considerably. Thanks are due to those who submitted their valuable comments and, finally, to the Bureau of Social Science Research for publishing the work. Responsibility rests with the editor.

Leonard Rubin

Washington, D. C.
February 1969

ORGANIZATION OF THE ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY *

		Page
I.	General Commentary on the Context and Nature of Youth Problems. (1-17)	1
	A. An Introductory View of the Subject. (1-4)	1
	B. Introduction to the Related Problems of Disadvantaged, Deviancy, and Dropping Out. (5-9)	2
	C. Introduction to Approaches to Programs for Disadvantaged Youth. (10-13)	4
	D. Introduction to the Characteristics, Background Variables, and Employment Status of Disadvantaged and Lower Class Youth. (14-17)	7
II.	The Nature of the Problem: The Perspectives of Research and Analysis on the Problems of Youth and Youth as a Problem. (18-76)	9
	A. Youth and Youth Problems: Sociological and Psychological Aspects. (18-32)	9
	1. Sociological Considerations. (18-23)	9
	2. Psychological Considerations. (24-28)	11
	3. Varying Views of Disadvantage and Deviancy. (29-32)	14
	B. Youth and Youth Problems: Educational Aspects. (33-51)	16
	1. The Disadvantaged Youth in School. (33-36)	16
	2. The Dropout Problem. (37-43)	18
	3. Schools and the Education of the Disadvantaged. (44-51)	20
	C. Youth and Youth Problems: Employment. (52-76)	24
	1. The General Problem of Occupational Choice and Access to Employment. (52-60)	24
	2. Occupational Choices Available to Disadvantaged Youth. (61-63)	28
	3. Statistics on the Employment Status of Youth (Not Annotated). (64-75)	30

* Numbers of entries under each heading are in parenthesis.

ORGANIZATION OF THE ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

	Page
III. Programs for the Problems. (76-136)	33
A. Remedial and Rehabilitative Programs for the Sociological, Psychological and Educational Aspects. (76-113)	33
1. Problems and Prospects in Establishing Programs for Youth With Special Needs. (76-89)	33
2. Programs in the High Schools. (90-98)	38
3. Programs Outside of the High Schools. (99-113)	43
B. Remedial and Training Programs Dealing With Vocational Aspects. (114-136)	49
1. Problems and Prospects in Establishing Vocational Programs. (114-124)	49
2. Vocational Training Programs. (125-136)	53
IV. Problems and Goals for Public Policy. (137-150)	59

I. GENERAL COMMENTARY ON THE CONTEXT AND NATURE OF YOUTH PROBLEMS.

A. An Introductory View of the Subject.

1. Nat Hentoff, "Whose Existential Crisis?" American Child, Vol. 46 (November, 1964), 1-3.

The problem of motivating disadvantaged youth can be solved only through radical social change leading to new values and new understanding of the nature of work which would be expressed politically by voting for expenditures and planning to eradicate poverty. Programs to motivate youth, to inculcate middle class values, and to encourage youth to accept more schooling and job training can only be seen as hypocritical if the social and economic structure does not also provide a full and equal measure of opportunity for involvement in the structure and for reaping the benefits of that involvement. The educational system and the job market only reinforce the sense of alienation because they accent inadequacies rather than offer means to overcome the lack of skill, confidence and hope. Vocational training courses are obsolete, and available jobs mean only drudgery.

2. Charles E. Silberman, "Let's Talk About the Real World," American Child, Vol. 46 (November, 1964), 4-8.

The problem of youth employment must be met at three levels. The jobs for which training is offered must be acceptable, or recruitment will not be successful; the education system must have its content revamped, since what is now offered to disadvantaged youth is not really education; but most important, the slum environment must itself be changed. Indigenous leadership of slum communities must be developed and effective community action undertaken by the people within the slums. Even heavily funded large-scale government programs will not provide the necessary motivation. But a mass organization of locally active slum situated groups may provide an internal stimulus by appealing to the self-interest of the disadvantaged.

3. Paul Goodman, "I Don't Want to Work," American Child, Vol. 45 (May, 1963), 1-4.

Disadvantaged youth do not want to work because the available jobs offer little in the way of fulfillment. The major responsibility lies with the socio-economic structure which is directed by material goals, which fails to respond to needs and potentials, and which places glittering material rewards far beyond the level of gainful employment to which disadvantaged youth see themselves as being able to

aspire. Schools and training programs must pay more attention to the problem presented by disadvantaged youth seeking identity in an environment which relegates intrinstic motivation and development of personal talent and satisfaction to the single category of material need. The heart of a solution lies with the ability of the affluent society to be, "more careful of its human resources," and, hence, to become a worthier place in which to work.

4. J. R. Seeley, "Guidance and the Youth Culture," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 41 (December, 1962), 302-10.

The article is a tour de force which presents an overall view of the socio-economic world which faces today's youth. It describes the prevalent values, goals and means, and then presents the reactions of youth. Today's youth do not intend either to be assimilated or deceived by a social system which presents a great choice of activities, a standard of consumption geared to wealth, and a dearth of values. The reactions and actions of youth today do not so much protect against attack as "against seduction--a seduction that they more than half desire." "What the young defend themselves against is the intent to bring them into our world of comfort, content, aimlessness, smallness of compass, emptiness of significance--and absurdity." Youth see that those who are grown are themselves unable to believe in this world which is unable to accredit itself. It is this social order which, by its vacuity, lends such strength to patterns of antisocial and delinquent behavior. Those who are involved in guidance must have access to the structures which embody the patterns of delinquency or they will be seen by youth as only the emissaries of a rejected adult culture.

B. Introduction to the Related Problems Of Disadvantage, Deviancy and Dropping Out.

5. W. W. Wattenberg, "Review of Trends," National Society for the Study of Education, Yearbook, Vol. 65, Part I, 1966, 4-27.

The article introduces the volume. It traces the variety of causes of deviancy uncovered in sociological and psychological research. No satisfactory single theory has been devised and therefore there is no clear set of guidelines for programs dealing with deviant youth. The problem of deviancy had been conceived almost completely in terms of delinquency, but has now come to merge with consideration of educational and vocational inequities. The social and economic changes that have taken place since the 1940's are related qualitatively and quantitatively to the development of the problem of deviancy as it exist for us today. The variety of possible programs is described with reference to the many kinds of approaches which, themselves, depend on the way in which the causes of

the problem are conceived. But programs have tended to grow broader and to deal with several areas of the general question--psychological aid, vocational guidance and training, counseling and placement, education and welfare--since clear demarcations between the areas have not yet been established. Indeed, since the complexity of the problem of deviancy is a product of the interrelationship of many factors, much more research is needed before accurate and useful typologies will be available and adequate criteria for demarcation devised.

6. A. C. Ornstein, "Who Are the Disadvantaged?" Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. 41 (April, 1966), 154-63.

The article offers a convenient summary of the standard views on disadvantaged youth, and it outlines the nature of conditions underlying disadvantage. It maintains that poverty is not a sufficient definition of the cause of disadvantage, but that subsistence levels of existence must also be included. Hence, the convention offered by the President's Council of Economic Advisors of a 3,000 dollar family income as the cut-off point is not empirically valid. The 40 to 50 million Americans who are poor according to the definition of the convention should really be about 70 million, of which 40 percent are youths. This figure, it is submitted, covers more accurately the number of people who suffer disadvantage as a result of low socio-economic status.

7. "Educational Planning for Socially Disadvantaged Children and Youth," The Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 33 (Summer, 1964), The Yearbook Number.

This yearbook number contains articles under the following heading:

1. Identifying needs and characteristics;
2. Specific areas of emphasis necessary to effective planning;
3. Factors influencing effective planning;
4. Evaluation of yearbook; and
5. Research and bibliography.

8. Edgar Z. Friedenberg, "An Ideology of School Withdrawal," Commentary, Vol. 35 (June, 1963), 492-500.

Today's dropouts would not have been in school fifty years ago; they would have joined the working class. The attempt today is to keep dropouts in school by trying to demonstrate the economic benefits of an education. But, even if programs to reach dropouts were truly successful, it might well be that those who completed high school would still be hard to place. Indeed, the poor are increasingly skeptical of the middle class values which schools attempt to inculcate. Success and social mobility are middle class terms and have little significance for the poor. The schools must learn to accept rather than reject the terms of the life of the lower class; only then will the schools be able to help lower class youth explore the terms

of their existence and to develop as individuals their talents and genius. It is not values which must be inculcated, since they imply rejection of the condition in which poor youth exist and hence of the youth themselves; rather it is abilities which must be helped to develop.

9. R. A. Dentler, "Dropouts, Automation and the Cities," Teachers College Record, Vol. 65 (March, 1964), 475-83.

The discussion opens with a critique of the marshalling of evidence concerning the importance of the dropout problem. To see that problem in its proper perspective it must be understood that voluntary dropping out is to be separated from withdrawal due to mobility or physical or mental handicap; furthermore, in any given year, a number of dropouts from a previous year may return to school. It may be estimated that by 1975 only 15 percent will drop out voluntarily. Research on dropouts has not been sufficiently systematic: characteristics of schools, instructional staffs, and the social-psychological characteristics of different dropouts have not been satisfactorily distinguished or properly correlated. Additionally, research has disclosed that the correlation between disadvantage (as a complex of factors) and voluntary withdrawal has remained much the same since 1928, but this does not allow us to conclude that the nature of disadvantage has remained unchanged. An analysis is offered to show that although dropping out of the disadvantaged will lessen, since the number of poor as a proportion of the population is decreasing, the proportion of disadvantaged who graduate from high school compared with the proportion who dropout will also decrease. Economic and labor market analyses related to education have not been correlated with the psychological and sociological aspects of research on education. If the national product remains constant and jobs increase at the same rate as over the last five years, unemployment will increase to 8 percent by 1970, and with the total of young adults increasing, and with the high school diploma meaning less and less in a more technically orientated labor market, dropouts and graduates will tend to share more problems, and they will compete more for the same jobs. Education must begin to meet this problem. The article concludes with recommendations on refocusing our educational programs.

C. Introduction to Approaches to Programs For Disadvantaged Youth.

10. Frank Riessman and Arlene Hannah, "The Poverty Movement (Growing interest in the community fight against poverty and social conditions; Operation of the Mobilization for Youth Project in New York, N. Y.)," Columbia University Forum, Vol. 6 (Fall 1963), 28-32.

Following a brief description of the Mobilization for Youth project, the article concentrates on some of the basic deficiencies in the theoretical and empirical

base from which we approach the problem of disadvantaged youth. By accenting the debilitating aspects of the environment of the disadvantaged we have ignored the positive personal characteristics and styles which have been developed in the attempt of the disadvantaged to cope with their environment. It is by appealing to these characteristics that programs have the best to succeed. By concentrating on vocational training for disadvantaged youth, schools tend to ignore academic potential. Their apparent lack of desire for education may be a reflection of the fact that schools are geared to educate on a line of middle class values. Disadvantaged youth may not care to learn to read, but they may be encouraged to learn through role-playing techniques which appeal to them more. Programs to aid them should attempt to build their strengths and not to preach to them patterns of behavior which relate to a middle class environment that seems to them both beyond their reach and alien to their ways. At the same time efforts must be made to improve their social and economic conditions, involving them in the actual effort. This is essential if the attempt to educate is to be meaningful in improving their ability to live fruitfully.

11. B. Mackler and M. G. Giddings, "Culture Deprivation, A Study in Mythology," Teacher College Record, Vol. 66 (April, 1965), 608-613.

The concept of culture deprivation applied commonly to the disadvantaged is inappropriate and misleading. The two words themselves, culture and deprivation, entail a contradiction in meaning: that a culture can be deprived or that it can deprive its members of their culture. To use the terms is to accept a rationale for prejudice by assigning to Negroes and other disadvantaged groups a definition which makes them lesser men by comparison, since their culture is not "the culture." Use of the terms ignores facts exposed by research. Lack of interest in education is often attributed to the culturally deprived. But this lack is belied by the civil rights movement and by the fact that not all disadvantaged are underachievers. To impute anti-intellectualism to the disadvantaged, as Riessman does, is to ignore Hofstadter, who, "points out that anti-intellectualism is pervasive in present-day America." To assign the label, culturally deprived, is to belittle rather than to identify those individuals whose behavior does not conform to the dominant culture patterns in the nation; it is to ignore both the potentialities of individuals who come from low socio-economic backgrounds and the facts of their frequent successes in the academic and economic spheres. What is needed is not to substitute one culture for another on the grounds of a normative judgement in the guise of objective social science; but rather disadvantaged students must be helped and encouraged to achieve constructive behavior through the creative potentials of their own backgrounds.

12. Eli Ginzburg, "Needed: A New Perspective," American Child, Vol. 47 (January, 1965), 19-23.

Four convictions are stated concerning youth unemployment:

1. unemployment is seldom the result of lack of education and training, since the labor market adjusts to the overall level of education;

2. youth unemployment depends upon general unemployment insofar as youth must compete in the labor market and is not an isolated factor;
3. unemployment figures "understate the numbers of people interested in and capable of working;" and,
4. lack of basic educational skills results from deficiencies in the school system and should be dealt with there rather than in remedial programs.

These convictions are qualified by the following comments:

The problem of youth employment is complicated by the elimination of entry-level unskilled jobs through technological change, by the disadvantaging environment created by the congregation of unskilled unemployed people in urban slums, and by increasing rates of employment which place in still greater relief the hard-core unemployed who remain.

Partial solutions may be found through employment programs, reduction of retirement age, shorter work week, more efficient use of the power of the public sector to create jobs and by antipoverty programs. But we do not yet have the answers to the problem of youth unemployment. Hence, we must commit ourselves to the effort and expense of large-scale social experimentation to search for answers. The alternatives would be even more costly.

13. Edith Lynton, "Will They Be Hired?" American Child, Vol. 47 (January, 1965), 11-14.

Employers must be persuaded to examine their hiring practices and to state them clearly. This is essential if training programs are to equip youth to find and hold jobs. But employers must also be persuaded to re-examine their requirements for employability. To many accent either education or experience as indices of trainability and stability of employees, and they give little weight to vocational training. Further, their view of what constitutes education is limited to grade level achieved rather than to what was learned. There are many cases which show that workers with very little education may be trained successfully for jobs which employers normally assign only to high school graduates. Indeed, in many instances the nature of the work to be done has little relevance to literacy or to previous experience. Too, employers hesitate to select young workers because they fear the tendency on the part of youth to job-hop and to be as yet uncommitted to a particular line of work. If jobs are to be made available employers must be prepared to accept aptitude and skill as the major criteria. They must be willing to rationalize the job structure and the design of each job to provide a work situation amenable to hiring on the basis of skill and aptitude rather than on the basis of an uncritical acceptance of the established socio-economic hierarchy.

D. Introduction to the Characteristics, Background Variables and Employment Status of Disadvantaged and Lower Class Youth.

14. Vera C. Perrella and Forrest A. Bogan, "Out-of-School Youth, February 1963, Part I," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 87 (November, 1964), 1260-8; Part II, by Thomas E. Swanstrom, Vol. 87 (December, 1964), 1416-24.

A detail study is offered covering background data, employment status and related activities. Analysis of the tables summarizing statistics is extensive and the range of variables covered is greater than usual.

15. Vera C. Perrella and Elizabeth Waldman, "Out-of-School Youth--Two Years Later: a 1965 Resurvey of Young Men in a 1963 Study of Early Work Experience Assesses the Relative Progress of Graduates and Dropouts," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 89 (August, 1966), 860-6.

This report comparing graduates and dropouts covers the major variables of employment history including further training or education, job mobility, earnings, type of work, labor force status, length of time jobs were held.

16. James F. Tucker, "The First 50,000 Neighborhood Youth Corps Enrollees (Compares some of the characteristics of Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) enrollees and their households with the general category of poverty-stricken households throughout the nation)," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 88 (December, 1965), 1442-4.

The statistical breakdown presented covers age, sex, employment status, size of household, education and color. Tables and a chart summarize the information.

17. W. P. Spence, "Process and Product of T and I High School Level Vocational Education," Industrial Arts and Vocational Education, Vol. 55 (June, 1966), 44-5.

The article reviews the highlights of the survey which sampled 5,500 vocational and 1,800 academic graduates for the years 1953, 1958 and 1962. The survey covered all major categories of employment history and correlated them with background and training variables: race, education, family, etc.

II. THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM: THE PERSPECTIVES OF RESEARCH AND ANALYSIS ON THE PROBLEMS OF YOUTH AND YOUTH AS A PROBLEM.

A. Youth and Youth Problems: Sociological and Psychological Aspects.

1. Sociological Considerations.

18. Lewis Rhodes, "Anomia, Aspiration and Status, (Relationship in young people between occupational aspirations and anomia, perceived status deprivations: based on a study of 970 high school seniors in Tennessee; revision of address)," Social Forces, Vol. 42 (May, 1964), 434-40.

This research investigates some of the limits to the effect of socio-economic status on the attitudes of youth, by examining anomia which is a reaction to tension produced by three conflicting social factors: society's demand that all compete for material success, a social system that restricts access to the means of success, and individual occupational aspiration. The methods and results of a survey of high-school seniors are described. Although the evidence supported the contention that anomia increases where the distance between aspiration and actual chances for success increases, it was also found that maintainance of high aspirations affords insulation against anomia, for instance where a youth has had a chance to assimilate the "American Dream" as a result of middle class influences even when his own socio-economic status is low. However, where economic stress is high, anomia is more evident.

19. N. Young, "Community Predictors of School Holding Power," Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. 39 (March, 1964), 116-21.

The research reported supports the hypothesis that there is a significant correlation between socio-economic variables and student holding power of high schools. The correlation between higher dropout rates and socio-economic background conducive to low socio-economic goals and between low dropout rates and a background conducive to high socio-economic goals leads to the conclusion that programs to deal with the former condition must include means for raising the socio-economic aspirations of students both by developing "a school environment which can provide understanding of and working with people of the community to the extent that there is acceptance and cooperation by students and parents," and by developing "a program that will help raise the socio-economic sights of both parents and students, so that they may come to accept and strive for the cultural values that bring with them the stimulus for higher educational attainment." The article then mentions several programs and outlines some of the specific activities necessary to such programs. The

article is critical of approaches which offer "watered-down" subjects or which eschew education in favor of work programs on the grounds that these avoid the real issues having to do with the causes underlying voluntary dropout from high school.

20. J. K. Tuel, "Dropout Dynamics," California Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 17 (January, 1966), 5-11.

The article derives a clear statement of the characteristics of dropouts, as related to the causes and cures for dropping out, from a review of some of the major research. Interpersonal relations--child to family, student to teacher, and youth to peers--are seen to operate in a context of socio-economic status, degree of success early in school, and financial and emotional resources governing participation in peer activities, particularly extra-curricular activities. These factors, observed in relation to retardation among dropouts, are shown to be relevant even where dropouts display a reasonable intelligence potential. The retardation occurs not only in academic spheres but in ability to participate in activities dominated by those who are more successful. The early symptoms are grade failures, low verbal intelligence, frequent absence, and lack of participation. The proper ameliorative actions consist of emphasis on achievement in terms of the student's own abilities, improved guidance and instruction to appeal to the potential dropout, greater efforts to interest parents, and creation of programs to make it financially possible for the student to participate in the extra-curricular activities which are often rather expensive.

21. L. G. Burchinal and J. D. Cowhig, "Rural Youth in an Urban Society," Children, Vol. 10 (September, 1963), 167-72.

The article is concerned with the ability of rural youth to compete for work in an urban oriented society. It compares rural with urban youth in terms of family background; resources available to them for education, vocational training, socialization; standards and values; ability to appraise problems and possibilities. In all, rural youth are seen to be at a relative disadvantage, especially since most of them will have to look for work in nonrural settings. If resources are not made available to them for improving their position they will come to the cities only to join the ranks of unemployed youth.

22. G. J. Falk, "Role of Social Class Differences and Horizonal Mobility in the Etiology of Aggression," Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 33 (September, 1959), 1-10.

Each social class environment provides a different set of influences on personality development. The lower class is influenced by more general acceptance of physical aggression as a legitimate mode of expression, while the middle class inculcates

greater restraint. In lower classes there tends to be less supervision of activities outside of the home and more permissiveness about them; in middle class families outside activities are subjected to much guidance and review. Lower class families tend to be structured in more rigid and authoritarian ways, while middle class families are more flexible and egalitarian. The article discusses these and other class characteristics and relates their different effects on personality to later experiences in childhood and adolescence. Since restraint and conformity to prevalent modes of economic and social advancement are more a part of the experiences of middle class students, the restraints and activities of school are easier on them and more acceptable; but the lower class student tends to run up against more rebukes and harsher, less sympathetic treatment, since he has adjusted to a different set of class values than those governing school. The pattern of aggression is thus set as a reaction to a dominant different class. Clashes with the law are clashes with a resented representative of the dominant class; they are the expression of frustration in a mode acceptable to the lower classes--violence. There is not more criminality among the lower class; there is more violent behavior in response to a more violent environment.

23. D. J. Bordua, "Sociological Perspectives," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 65, Part I (1966), 78-102.

Contributions from sociological theory to the understanding of delinquency and diviant behavior are outlined and discussed. The viability of the theories is then analyzed with reference to specific empirical data and to the problems posed in attempting to apply the theories to arrive at a satisfactory interpretation of observed facts.

2. Pyschological Considerations.

24. W. M. Ahlstrom, "Masculine Identity and Career Problems for Boys," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 65, Part I (1966), 135-63.

The differing abilities of youth to take advantage of school as a means to achieve adult status and to learn occupational skills are described in terms of the kind of masculine identification made by the youths. Those who have identified with a father image that displays commitment and success in work will be more motivated to progress in school and thereby to develop mental skills and further motivation. Three levels are distinguished according to the nature and strength of masculine identification: first are those youths who will continue their education or professional training beyond high school, and for whom the 1960's hold a rich array of possible occupations; second are those who, though they will complete high school, will have difficulty in finding satisfactory work but will nevertheless be amenable to guidance and counseling; and, last, are those youths who are unable to fit into the occupational structure and who have not been able to develop attitudes necessary for success in work or school through the normal pattern of identification and

subsequent development. The bulk of the essay deals with the last group, describing their frustrations, failures and alienation.

25. E. M. Bower, "Personality and Individual Social Maladjustment," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 65, Part I (1966), 103-134.

This analysis applies behavioral psychology in the attempt to understand and treat maladjustment. The focus is on ego processes as they influence the perception and judgement of data from the external world. The thesis is offered that the way in which information is perceived and assimilated is directly related to behavior and indicative of the type of ego processes which are dominant in the personality of the individual. Ego processes are varied, some encouraging behavioral freedom and others restricting it, depending on whether or not they tend to enhance the ability of the individual to assimilate information and to communicate it. The ability to perceive, judge, and communicate through the manipulation of symbols is essential if maladjustment is to be avoided, because knowledge and communication are "rapidly becoming--our basic commodity." By understanding ego processes and their mediating effect and by observing the nature or stages of perception and judgement displayed in the behavior of an individual, specific tests and programs of treatment may be devised to influence the ego processes and to encourage less maladjusted behavior. The article describes ego processes, their effect on the perception and assimilation of data and how these relate to adjustment and maladjustment.

26. T. L. Millard, "Some Clinical Notes on Dropouts," Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. 39 (December, 1964), 343-7.

The article describes in general terms the psychology of dropouts. Their tendency to flee from situations of stress prevents them from perceiving consciously their unfavorable socio-economic position and hence from coming to grips with it. What other students see as challenges, they see as threats. To overcome this general condition of anxiety, more attention must be given to coordinating the contributions of mental health within the general pattern of school programs and programs of individual and social welfare. The aim should be "to build up their hopes and natural wants through reassuring and supportive experiences..." In other words, programs must be developed which will "create a social environment conducive to the development of the fullest social and psychological potential of the person."

27. G. P. Liddle, "Psychological Factors Involved in Dropping Out of School," The High School Journal, Vol. 45 (April, 1962), 276-80.

The article provides a brief, clear review of the basic social and psychological attitudes of dropouts. The relevance of parental attitudes toward school and education are shown to be very important and perhaps at times controlling, although

they remain one among many types of factors. Parents of dropouts tend not to hold values which would support respect for school and education. If they do support school attendance it is without much conviction. They see any situation in which failure is a risk as one to be avoided. Hence, threat rather than opportunity is seen by dropouts in the school situation. And, where school is viewed as of little value, so too is the self. However, this sense of failure, and the concomitant tendency to withdraw may be countered by school influences. Thus, when disadvantaged potential dropouts attend predominantly middle class schools where achievement is emphasized, they are far less likely to drop out than if they had attended a school in an area of poverty and disadvantage. Also, where a student has little ability and motivation but has one area of achievement--athletics, music, etc.--there is a greater tendency to complete high school.

28. E. S. Bordin and Others, "Articulated Framework for Vocational Development," with comment by A. Roe, Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 10 (Summer, 1963), 107-17.

The research reported examines the nature of personality organization in relation to the adoption of occupational roles. Earlier work on occupational choice is reviewed to set the context for this examination of the major gratifications offered by different occupations. Gratification is formulated in terms of needs, motivations, impulses and actual activities, as these factors are involved in the development of personality traits from childhood. These dimensions of personality are then related through job analysis, to the modifying activities of particular work experiences, with accounting, social work and plumbing being used as the illustrations. The assumptions tested were:

1. that there is a continuity of development linking the earliest efforts at gratification to the most sophisticated work activities;
2. that "complex adult activities retain the same instinctual sources of gratification as the simple infantile ones;" and,
3. that the basic pattern of needs is set by the first six years--although their relative ascendencies may be modified--and acts as the driving force to "the seeking out of occupational outlets of increasingly precise appropriateness," during the school years.

The commentary by Roe on the research reported in this article cautions that "the relevance of socio-economic factors in shaping occupational histories, as these interact with more strictly internal factors," cannot be readily explained by the theory offered and that there remains the problem of understanding, "just what gratifications are obtainable from lower level occupations..."

3. Varying Views of Disadvantage and Deviancy.

29. Manuel Lopez-Rey, "Juvenile Delinquency, Maladjustment and Maturity," The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, Vol. 51 (May/June, 1960), 34-48.

The article is concerned with the tendency to define and to prescribe for deviant behavior among youth in terms of bio-psychological or psycho-analytic theories which explain such behavior, "either as the inevitable result of some unsatisfied needs or internal conflicts, or as the no less inevitable result of certain external factors." The concepts of maladjustment and maturity are the focal points for the critique offered. It is maintained that the problem of standards for adjustment and maturity cannot be solved by purely psychological formulations, because these have no ethical content. The analysis describes them as fundamentially materialistic and, hence, as avoiding essential socio-political concepts--for instance, freedom, responsibility and individual rights. The psychological approach, by describing the problem only in terms of emotional or affective situations and the treatment in terms of help to adjust and to mature, and in terms of supportive welfare activities, would inculcate a conformity to behavior norms as evidence of psychological adjustment and would encourage dependency on welfare aid. All of this tends to undermine the individual as an ethical and social person, aspects which should not be ignored. The requirements of individuals as well as of society must be considered, and our understanding and treatment of delinquency should not be controlled by arbitrary assignments of standards or unscientific theories--theories which select the facts to be dealt with on the grounds of very partial concepts and hypotheses.

30. C. Savitzky, "Social Theory Advances on the Disadvantaged," High Points, Vol. 46 (February, 1964), 54-62.

This article asserts that social theorists and researchers who argue that middle-class values dominate the schools and their staffs and, thus, exclude the disadvantaged from educational opportunity, are mistaken in their view of the disadvantaged and of the purpose of schools. Those disadvantaged who become problems do not do so because of socio-economic and psychological determinants of a stratified class structure. They present problems because they are difficult individuals lacking in discipline, desire for education, and socially acceptable values. This behavior is not confined to the lower classes but is to be found as well in the middle classes. A study is cited in support of this contention. Hence, the attitude of these social theorists is too permissive toward the behavior of difficult and delinquent youth. The purpose of schools is to educate and not to be instruments of social change acting on matters essentially outside their scope and competence. Lack of sympathy and withdrawal of active help from students with difficulties is not recommended; and it is admitted freely that schools and staff always need improvement and the means for improving. But the actions of schools with regard to the disadvantaged

are founded on a realistic view--that moral discipline and control is not repressive; it is the maintenance of order over a tendency to chaos. The problems are not only social and economic; they are more realistically to be understood in terms of personal responsibility and initiative.

31. M. K. Freedman, "Background of Deviancy," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 65, Part I (1966), 28-58.

Deviancy is analyzed in relation to the contemporary status and role of youth. The varieties of deviancy are in part a reflection of different reactions to frustrations and anxieties presented by an adult world which requires of youth a longer and longer preparation before youth are admitted to meaningful, responsible and satisfying participation. In this state of enforced apprenticeship, youth feel powerless to meet the challenges in the world which produce their anxieties. The various expressions of deviancy are described with reference to basic factors of socio-economic status, poverty, education, unemployment and delinquency. Deviancy among the disadvantaged receives much attention in the description and analysis of these factors. Deviancy itself can be expressed generally as aggressive or retreatist behavior. The aggressive forms are more noticeable and hence command most attention and most of the resources allocated for the purpose of providing services to deviant youth. But quietism among youth may well be hiding far more fundamental forms of rejection and rebellion, forms which in the extreme may contain no social commitment and little concern for social problems and human values. Deviancy is not a serious problem for a majority of youth; but it could become serious, and it is difficult to correct our attempts to deal with it since the challenges presented by social critics are often "unpalatable to those who are in positions of responsibility for carrying out day-to-day programs."

32. R. J. Havighurst, "Social Deviancy Among Youth; Types and Significance," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 65 Part I (1966), 59-77.

Desirable and undesirable forms of deviancy must be distinguished. Aggressive or neurotic behavior must be distinguished from unusual behavior resulting from great intelligence or creativity. Nonconformist behavior may benefit society, while undesirable deviancy is characterized by damage to people or property, breaking of taboos, offending generally accepted mores, and by activities that inflict harm on the deviant and which arise from such non-positive sources as anomic or alienated personalities. A further distinction is offered between two types of undesirable deviancy: the antisocial behavior of delinquents is not to be confused with the asocial deviancy expressed in retreatist apathy. The latter type of deviancy may be dealt with through educational programs, and the article recommends the following:

1. provision of opportunity to serve society;
2. study of society through instruction designed to make clear positive

developments and potentials;

3. use of adult models who have maintained self-esteem and have perceived and acted out positive social roles.

While antisocial deviancy is more characteristic of the lower class, asocial behavior may be found equally in the lower and middle class; for the former it tends to become apathy and for the latter a rejection of social participation in favor of privately sought satisfactions.

B. Youth and Youth Problems: Educational Aspects.

1. The Disadvantaged Youth in School.

33. J. K. Coster, "Some Characteristics of High School Pupils from Three Income Groups," Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 50 (April, 1959), 55-62.

The research reported supports the contention that students with low SES backgrounds tend to be less successful in high school. Background variables were correlated with income level or socio-economic status; students were divided into three income levels, and the response in each level were compared for 23 items of personal information ranging from family background to academic performance and social activities. Low income students showed a significant tendency to receive lower grades, to be enrolled in vocational rather than college preparatory courses, to participate far less in activities in high school, in the community or in church groups, to spend fewer hours studying at home, and to accept their lot in school with greater resignation. Despite the lack of critical reaction to a school situation in which they have relatively less success, low income students are more likely to deprecate their chances for satisfactory employment. It may be, the article concludes, that equal opportunity in education does not make for equal educational experiences, perhaps because of the operation of sociological and psychological factors. We may be aiming at mass education but seem to achieve more the education of the elite.

34. Francis P. Purcell and Maurie Hillson, "The Disadvantaged Child: A Product of the Culture of Poverty: His Education and His Chances," Eugenic Quarterly, Vol. 13 (September, 1966), 179-85.

Based on a review of research, a strong and clear case is made to support the contention that upward mobility is a much more real possibility for those from middle-class backgrounds than it is for the disadvantaged and the poor. The disabilities associated with the "culture of poverty" are the effect of socio-economic conditions more than of ethnic background. Disadvantaged children who start school with

IQ's comparable to non-disadvantaged children tend to fall below their original score by the fifth grade. They tend also to have a negative self-image and a different set of life experiences and sense impressions. The effect is to render them less verbal, less analytic, more anxious and less able to sustain a present activity to achieve a future benefit. In school, they are faced with experiences designed for middle-class students. Teachers who have been given no special experience with disadvantaged children fail to reach them; but those with special training are more successful. Schools in lower class areas are older, have poorer facilities, greater staff turnover and hence fewer experience teachers, greater discipline problems, and more students whose families tend to move frequently. Hence, not only are disadvantaged youths provided with material which is alien to them, they actually receive less instruction time. Opportunities for success must be provided so that those who try have a fair chance to break out of the poverty cycle.

35. L. Carmical, "Characteristics of Achievers and Under-Achievers of a Large Senior High School," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 43 (December, 1964), 390-5.

The research reported was aimed at identifying reasons for underachievement of able high school students in the junior and senior years. The characteristics tested were scholastic aptitude, vocational interest, personal temperament, and value preferences. Although differences were recorded between achievers and underachievers, it was concluded that the characteristics studied were not directly relevant to underachievement. The article suggests that more attention in research should be paid to the self-concept of the underachiever on the grounds that underachievers have low regard for themselves--a condition reinforced by lack of academic success. Other bases for research are motivational forces, curriculum, economic and social conditions, and personality structure.

36. F. Shaw, "Followup Study of the 1963 High School Graduates," High Points, Vol. 47 (November, 1965), 31-56.

The article, which is a summary of a fuller report, provides statistics on an analysis of the activities of June and August graduates from New York City high schools during the fall of the same year, 1963. The reporting distinguishes between boys and girls and compares and contrasts figures for the different types of high schools: academic, commercial, general, technical, and vocational. Responses are categorized as: continuing education, full or part time; employed; employed and attending school; married and keeping house; in armed services; other. Types of jobs obtained and types of educational institutions attended are also distinguished in the reporting. Comparison with national averages is offered, and accounts for differences in employment and unemployment are included.

2. The Dropout Problem.

37. C. V. Matthews, "Serious Problem of the School Dropout," Illinois Education, Vol. 50 (January, 1962), 209-12.

The result of the Quincy Youth Development Project are reported. Data collected for an entire age group during an 8-year period was concerned with the following questions: "What characteristics distinguish the dropout from those who stay in school? What experiences of theirs lead to leaving school? How are dropouts seen by their peers, their teachers, and themselves? What do they think of their school experience? What do they do after leaving school and how well do they do it? The data supports the trends of interpretation and analysis arrived at elsewhere; it helps to clarify the general picture drawn by contrasting dropouts with non-dropouts and by contributing additional information.

38. B. I. Greene, "Continuing Education and the High School Dropout," Adult Education, Vol. 12 (Winter, 1962), 76-83.

A sample of 48 dropouts and 19 graduates from high school was taken 10 years after leaving school to determine the extent of continuing education. All of the graduates took advantage of available facilities, mostly to improve their employment status. Only 25 percent of the dropouts undertook further education; these often without clearly defined goals. Graduates had a far higher completion rate. Dropouts who did not further their education frequently cited a lack of time or interest and seemed to be more ambiguous in their attitude. The evidence indicates that attitudes toward education and employment are well established for youth before leaving high school; a relationship between high school performance and later educational interest and achievement is established, with implications for performance in the job setting.

39. I. M. Josselyn, "Problems of School Dropouts; Review of the Dropouts, by S. Lichter and Others," Children, Vol. 9 (September, 1962), 194-6.

The article reviews the book The Dropouts, by Lichter et al. Three types of dropouts are discussed in the article: those who are psychologically disturbed and in need of therapy; those who are intellectually on the borderline or below it; and those who are "covert" dropouts, remaining in school, obtaining their high school diplomas but doing so without having learned anything. The book is focused on the first of the three types and is rich in case study material. It maintains that therapy in school can be used with good results. In all three types of cases, the schools must devise ways to reach youth, and through education and other forms of communication, provide youth with the tools needed to win through adolescence to adulthood and to be able to function in an adult world.

40. H. L. Voss and Others, "Some Types of High School Dropouts," The Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 59 (April, 1966), 363-8.

Factors of intelligence and academic skill are analyzed with reference to dropping out. Previous research is reviewed concerning intelligence scores, reading achievement, grade retardation and grades. No single factor nor any combination of factors accounts for the nature of dropouts so long as dropouts are viewed as a homogeneous group. First, early dropouts can be distinguished from late dropouts. This organizes the information gathered with reference to the four factors mentioned above that low IQ (below 85), lack of reading skill, grade retardation and course failure are correlated with early dropping out (prior to entering high school). The longer a dropout remains in high school the more it is likely that his dropping out is a function of a factor or factors other than or in addition to those four mentioned. Further progress may be made in ordering the variety of data by establishing a typology of dropouts:

1. involuntary--those who leave not for lack of ability but for external reasons beyond their control, such as health, economic need, etc.;
2. retarded dropouts are those who for lack of either ability or skill, or both (poor reading skill may not necessarily be associated with lack of sufficient intelligence to do high school work) suffer retardation and failure; and
3. capable dropouts who can do the work at an average or superior level but do not do the work due to problems of behavior, adjustment, or motivation.

Although it is inconclusive, research shows that one-half to three-fourths of the dropouts are capable dropouts. These youths present the greatest social problem because they are the greatest social waste.

41. D. S. Elliott and Others, "Capable Dropouts and the Social Milieu of the High School," Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 60 (December, 1966), 180-6.

From a review of research, the article derives several hypotheses to account for dropping out by capable students; it then attempts to bring together the different views. The low status background of most dropouts has provided impetus to kinds of socialization and goal orientation not suitable to the demands of the school environment and so provides little preparation for achieving status within either the informal school structures of clubs and peer group activities or the formal structure of academic activities. Formal tends to be of less immediate importance than informal status deprivation, since academic success for students from poor backgrounds is not so relevant to future expectations in terms of employment. Further contributing to the tendency to drop out are lack of educational support from the family and association with other dropouts. However, these influences may be countered by success in school. The school experience is of primary importance: deprivation of formal or academic status is more important in the earlier grades, but informal status deprivation becomes more important in the last 2 or 3 years of high school. If a student sees his low status as his own fault--lack of ability or

application--dropping out will become likely; if the student places the blame on the system he will tend first toward delinquency as a means of establishing a competing system--one in which status may be achieved by means more in keeping with his background; if this fails he will drop out. Informal and formal status deprivation are the key variables.

42. L. H. Woollat, "Why Capable Students Drop Out of High School," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. 45 (November, 1961), 1-8.

The article provides a statistical survey with extensive tables relating IQ to various factors of dropping out including sex, grade level reached, school factors, economic factors and personality factors. Although as a group dropouts averaged 10 points below graduates in IQ level, many graduates and dropouts had comparable intelligence potentials. Reasons for dropping out were gleaned both from dropouts and from their counselors. The former emphasized dissatisfaction with school, while the latter mentioned lack of discipline, effort, and problems of adjustment. But reasons for dropping out appeared to vary according to the actual capabilities of the students. Counselors deemed that the less able left because of lack of success; but for both groups parental attitudes were significant. More capable girls left because they disliked school, in this way grouping themselves with less capable boys; but marriage was an important factor.

43. B. R. Williams, "What Do We Really Know About High School Dropouts?" Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. 41 (October, 1966), 277-84.

The article reports research designed to ascertain the reasons for dropping out. In addition, research in several states on dropouts was examined to determine whether or not current research is adequate to discover the nature and extent of the problem. It was concluded that definitions of dropouts varied greatly from one state to the next and that, therefore, research lacked a goal common to all. Also, followup studies were lacking; and the content of the research itself needed to be systematized by establishing adequate uniform categories of necessary information.

3. Schools and the Education of the Disadvantaged.

44. D. Della-Dora, "Culturally Disadvantaged: Further Observations," Exceptional Children, Vol. 29 (January, 1963), 226-36.

Higher incidence of health problems, greater incidence of social and emotional maladjustment, cultural deprivation, more school failure and dropping out, higher rates of unemployment, and the prevalence of adjustment patterns which alienate the disvantaged from the usual channels for satisfaction of needs in a middle class society,

all these mark disadvantaged youth and set them apart. The problems these conditions present to the schools must be met not only with more relevant school programs and more appropriately trained staff but also with community action. "The bonds between school and community found in middle class neighborhoods of the United States are not present in lower class neighborhoods. But such interaction is essential and where it is lacking the schools must initiate a partnership with public and private community agencies and create community action programs to deal with the problems of the disadvantaged." The problem is especially keen in urban centers. Cities are under-represented in government at the national and state levels and are left too much with only their own local resources in dealing with problems which are of state and national dimensions. The article describes actions which should be taken to improve the ability of the schools to educate the disadvantaged and actions which should be undertaken by schools in partnership with the community to solve the noneducational problems.

45. Richard A. Cloward and Robert Ontell, "Our Illusions About Training," American Child, Vol. 47 (January, 1965), 6-10.

A case is presented to demonstrate that training programs for youth today give only the illusion of providing help--an illusion which is transparent to the disadvantaged youths to whom the programs must appeal. It is the socio-economic structure which presents the main problem and not the characteristics of the poor. The complex world of work is seen as a threat by youths because it is too demanding of skills and education, and the disadvantaged do not feel adequate to the challenge presented. Training programs have not provided the necessary skills or education; they have instead tended to accent work habits, experience and deportment. These are not the skills which will enable the youths to compete, and they know it. Training programs tend to put them to work rather than really to train them, and for this trainees feel underpaid. The statistics on enrollees, completers and subsequent employment support the contention that it is the programs which are unsuccessful--they do not provide occupational competence. There is a direct correlation between level of education and ability to find work. But the schools have "never engaged and educated" disadvantaged youth. We need, therefore, programs to change institutions and not just programs which deal only with individuals. Opportunity centers and work-training camps merely return the disadvantaged to their original problems without having created more jobs to which their newly acquired skills may be applied. Current programs do not make sense to youth.

46. David P. Ausubel, "The Effects of Cultural Deprivation on Learning Patterns," Audiovisual Education, Vol. 10 (January, 1965), 10-12.

The article describes the process of educational disadvantage as cumulative development deficit. This is literally a lack of learned material which prevents a youth from assimilating and identifying a sufficient range of objects, relationships and

basic abstractions required for success in education at the high school level. Hence, the article summarizes one of the basic problems to be dealt with in devising programs to serve needy youth. The article maintains that this process can be stopped and at least partly reversed by proper methods of instruction. In this way the level of functional intelligence may be raised to approximate more closely the intelligence potential. The methods recommended focus on the use of more concrete empirical props, physical manipulation and role playing. Furthermore, programmed instruction may be useful to the extent that it presents material in clearer sequences and gradations.

47. E. R. Steinberg, "Middle-Class Education for Lower-Class Students," Education, Vol. 86 (October, 1965), 67-74.

This article notes the failure in communication in our schools that result from the use of teaching materials that have not relation to the past experience or hopes and expectations of the students. The major emphasis is placed on the basic tool of communication and accomodation--language. The language of the slum has become a dialect; when, in the classroom, a student whose language is this slum dialect is downgraded for his poor language and required to absorb common English as though it were assumed by the teacher that the student ought to know that common English is correct and his dialect is incorrect, the student feels affronted and alienated. Rather, it should be understood by the teacher that common English must be introduced as a new dialect and not as an authoritative allocation of middle-class values. This is true, too, for the teaching of other subjects. The article refers to a study which showed that teachers from disadvantaged backgrounds take more satisfaction from their work and also react more positively to, and with greater understanding of their disadvantaged students than do teachers from middle-class backgrounds. Also, the study showed that students from lower-class backgrounds tend to see less agreement between their values and those of their teachers than do students from middle-class backgrounds.

48. S. Thomas and D. D. Knudsen, "Relationship Between Nonpromotion and the Dropout Problem," TIP, Vol. 4 (June, 1965), 90-4.

This review of research presents a graphic description of the nature and effects of nonpromotion. The role of the school is seen as two-fold: to impart facts from the body of technical knowledge; and to teach the roles appropriate to adulthood. The system of grade levels permits the school to offer facts and knowledge of adult roles in a step by step process. When students fail to absorb the facts they fail academically and are not promoted. But the social roles they have learned already must be repeated along with the academic aspects of the failed grade. This may cause boredom and hostility. The process tends to be cumulative--hence the reports of relationships between grade retardation and dropping out, regardless of the potential ability indicated in an average or better IQ. The sense of failure is only one

product. Nonpromotion also forces the student apart from a peer group into which his age would normally place him; it tends to produce a downward mobility since the student is forced into a peer group which he considers to be a year behind him and hence of lower status in the hierarchy of the school. This is humiliating and embarrassing. In addition, research has shown that repeating a grade does not help a student to assimilate better the academic material. The whole process has far-reaching effects and tends to re-enforce any tendency toward a negative self-image.

49. W. C. Kvaraceus, "Helping the Socially Inadapted Pupil in the Large City Schools," Exceptional Children, Vol. 28 (April, 1962), 399-404.

The problems of delinquency and disadvantage are accelerated by the environment of big city slums as compared with slums of smaller and middle size cities. For delinquent and disadvantaged youth, "the school generally represents the one positive and supervised experience that can steer them in the direction of personal and social well-being." Unfortunately, as a 1961 NEA survey showed, almost half of the principals and teachers argued for early expulsion. The article maintains that such a reaction ignores the responsibility of the schools and argues that schools can contribute to the emotional and intellectual well-being of the disadvantaged. To do so the school experience must not become one of irritation, conflict, failure and rejection. Teachers should be trained and accustomed to deal with such youth and must be helped to deal with their own frustrations and difficulties which may arise from their work. The youths in question need more individual attention and less impersonal instruction. A good relationship with an experienced and sympathetic teacher is the best instrument to achieve the communication needed to motivate, educate and guide the youths. Big city schools must be equipped to move toward the goals stated.

50. H. C. Brearly, "Should Schools Be Jails for Teenagers?" American School Board Journal, Vol. 140 (February, 1960), 28-30.

The lowering of school leaving age to 14 is defended on the following grounds: youths forced to remain in school against their inclinations become still further alienated from education, and the resulting frustration only tends to increase any bent to delinquency; schools are not equipped to deal with the difficult cases of the disadvantaged; technology has tended to reduce the efficacy of education in a skill or trade; the unskilled jobs can be learned easily; in any case there is an increasing tendency to on-the-job training; those who find school only frustrating make it hard for those who want education. Specific objections are dealt with as follows: those disadvantaged who wish to go to school and are able to do the work should have scholarships provided; those who enter the labor force should be provided with work programs when they cannot obtain work; the influx into the labor market would not reduce wages since wages are the result, in most instances, not

of a free labor market competition but of negotiation between unions and management; provisions should be increased and improved for adult education. Compulsory school attendance does not assure the nation of a populace with a minimum education, because those who react against school do not learn and only frustrate the learning process. The answer to the problem presented by the drop-out prone student is not to force him to remain in school but to encourage and help him to go to work.

51. S. H. Popper, "High School in the War on Poverty," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. 46 (April, 1962), 90-5.

The article is concerned with the responsibilities of the high school toward the poor and with what must be done to enable schools to fulfill those responsibilities. Because schools are required to offer free education through the twelfth grade, school enrollments reflect all levels of the socio-economic structure and, as such, are a microcosmic reflection of society. "The full range of social problems will....be reflected....in the culture of the school. Hence, just as the skills of the helping professions are needed in the general society, so are they needed in the school community." Evidence is brought to bear to show that teachers and school structures tend to reflect middle-class values and that the real problems and potentials of lower-class youth are not sufficiently visible within the established system. To increase the visibility, the system must be made more flexible and responsive, in which process the roles of social workers, guidance counselors, and school psychologists assume great importance. The vision of teachers would be broadened and deepened if teacher training schools and schools of social work were to have closer contacts. The schools have the potential to serve as a means to break the poverty cycle, especially for dropouts. Dropouts have fewer possibilities open to them than do graduates and tend, by dropping out, to recycle themselves into the same disadvantaged positions in society as those from which they tend to come. By increasing their abilities to be responsible, schools can be effective in dealing with at least this aspect of poverty.

C. Youth and Youth Problems: Employment.

1. The General Problem of Occupational Choice and Access to Employment.

52. L. Litsett, "Social Factors In Vocational Development," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 40 (January, 1962), 432-7.

The article presents a short systematic review of the relevance of social factors to vocational choice. The categories organizing these factors are: social class membership; home influences; school; community; pressure groups; and role perception.

Vocational counselors should have a grasp of these factors in relation to each counselee, for without them there can be no adequate prediction of suitability in any vocational choice.

53. N. Montesano and H. Geist, "Differences in Occupational Choice Between Ninth and Twelfth Grade Boys," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 43 (October, 1964), 150-4.

The research reported in this article supports the tentative conclusion that in occupational choice younger boys place more emphasis on interest, while, as they grow older, they place more and more emphasis on abilities and on the actual qualities of occupations, though never to the exclusion of interest which is always a strong factor. This is related to the generalization that vocational decisions are part of an identifiable developmental process tied to maturation.

54. O. E. Thompson, "Occupational Values of High School Students," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 44 (April, 1966), 850-3.

The research reported involved testing high school freshmen and retesting the same group as sophomores to determine their readiness to make occupation choices and to correlate some background variables with the kinds of choices indicated. It was concluded that although training for a specific occupation might be premature, there was good reason to begin in the first year of high school preparation for an orientation to general occupational areas, especially for those who would not complete high school. The testees were quite clear about what they valued in an occupation and 75 percent were consistent in their responses when retested in their sophomore year.

55. M. K. Freedman, "Some Policy Implications of Differential Access to Employment," Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 36 (May, 1963), 427-32.

This article reports research concerning employment patterns and vocational behavior of 91 dropouts from stable working-class backgrounds, as distinct from the marginal lower class. Of the 91, 38 had help available to them from friends or relatives who were able to place them in jobs through direct personal contact or who hired the youths to work with them on marginal self-employment jobs. As compared with the 53 youths who had no such personal help, the 38 showed significantly greater tendencies both to be more stable, to hold jobs longer, and to crystallize earlier their vocational plans. There was no significant variation of background variables between the two groups. Hence, the chance availability of direct personal help may be seen as a significant factor contributing to stability of early work experience. There was no evidence to show that the jobs taken by the 38 who received help amounted to the most suitable vocational choice. But the job solved an immediate pressing problem, and it is likely that, "at the lowest level

of skill, one job is much like another." Again, it seems that sponsorship or direct hiring by a friend or relative may have the affect of rendering the job sufficiently attractive to constitute a vocational choice, which also contributes to the stability of the experience. The research has led to consideration of the problem presented by those who have no such help. Concern for their future should lead to policies and programs which will treat these youths as individuals rather than as social phenomena and which will, where necessary, create work for them.

56. Larry D. Singell, "Some Private and Social Aspects of the Labor Mobility of Young Workers (Detroit, Michigan)," Quarterly Review of Economic and Business, Vol. 6 (Spring, 1966), 19-27.

A small sample of upper, middle and lower status youth were interviewed to discover the problems they faced when they tried to enter the labor market. The smallness of the sample prevents firm conclusions; but the following are among the results reported for low status youth as compared with youth of middle and upper status:

1. low status youth had more difficulty in finding work;
2. they had fewer personal contacts to use, hence, tended more to approach the State Employment Service;
3. 80 percent of the jobs they obtained by direct application were within 10 blocks of home;
4. as a result, low status youths had to compete more with adults from the same low status area for entry-level jobs;
5. the Employment Service tended to be unable to supply sufficient leads and was, therefore, looked on as relatively useless;
6. private agencies were looked on as rackets;
7. most tended to take the first job opening they came upon and to compare little the relative benefits of different jobs;
8. little job information was sought and the seeking process was not systematic, though once on a job youths tended to continue to seek other jobs.

It was suggested that a more efficient allocation process of labor could be achieved by providing information and guidance which could translate the random mobility of youth into a systematic mobilization. Allocation of resources for this would be amply repaid in terms of social welfare, since unemployment and long job hunts are correlated with acts of juvenile delinquency, the costs of which are great.

57. G. H. Elder, "Achievement Orientations and Career Patterns of Rural Youth," Sociology of Education, Vol. 37 (Fall, 1963), 30-58.

The article reports a survey of relevant research undertaken to determine the comparative achievement orientation of urban and rural youth in the increasingly technical world of work which demands more and more training of those who wish to be fitted for the higher status positions in the blue and white collar professions. The

survey and analysis lead to the conclusion that rural youth are at a disadvantage for several reasons: they receive less exposure to higher values and goals in career achievement; they are presented with fewer achievement opportunities; they reflect the influence of lower achievement motivation; and when they do attend college they are less well prepared. In general they display the effects of a more restricting behavior setting. Also, rural youths tend more to be dropouts. It may be expected, the article maintains, on the basis of research surveyed, that the high level positions will be taken by the urban youth with overall higher achievement orientation, and hence, the rural youth migrating to the urban job markets will be left with the low paying and low status jobs. The analysis of determinants of achievement orientation brings out the comparative disadvantage of rural as opposed to urban youth.

58. A. O. Haller, "The Occupational Achievement Process of Farm-Reared Youth in Urban-Industrial Society," Rural Sociology, Vol. 25 (September, 1960), 321-33.

The research reported is exploratory, aimed at formulating a hypothesis worthy of being tested. The subjects were all from an area of farms and light industry adjacent to areas of heavy industrialization and urbanization. The subjects were literate; a wide range of educational institutions and communication were available. The results showed that "farming is the normal occupational self-conception of farm-reared boys." However, where personalities showed self-reliance and inquisitiveness or where the parents themselves deviated from a farm orientation, youths became more aware of the alternatives presented by the surrounding environment. Where farm life dominates the effective environment but where farming is not a realistic choice because there are not enough farms or farm work to provide real objects for the occupational choice, and especially where workers are needed in other occupations, guidance counseling might best devise techniques to change the occupational self-conception by encouraging the farm youth to doubt the possibility of engaging in farming. This change would then be turned to motivation to seek information on and to become more aware of other and perhaps, "increased levels of educational and occupational aspiration."

59. William P. Kuvlesky and Robert C. Bealer, "A Clarification of the Concept 'Occupational Choice': A Lack of Clear, Conscious Conceptualization Has Hindered the Usefulness of Many Past Studies of the 'Occupational Choices' of Adolescents (Based on Conference Paper)," Rural Sociology, Vol 31 (September, 1966), 265-76.

The article reviews some of the research in this area and shows that because research purporting to be about a particular aspect of occupational choice reflects in fact different conceptions of the aspect, there has been a lack of coherence in the work done. The article offers a conceptual clarification of the meaning of occupational choice as a basis for more systematic work. Occupational choice is

defined in terms of aspiration. The view that it is, "the total developmental process involved in occupational attainment," is rejected on the grounds that it is too inconclusive since it admits too many elements over which the individual has no control. Instead, occupational aspiration is defined as a desired goal describable in terms both of status attributes and of orientation--orientation being measured by how strongly one goal is desired as distinct from other goals or objects of need. Goal is measured as high or low in rank; orientation as strong or weak. Furthermore, aspirations must be distinguished from expectations which, "are more closely related to existing occupational opportunities than are aspirations." Variables, such as social and economic class positions, personal attributes and abilities, will influence relationship of aspiration to expectation, which may converge or diverge each in its own range.

60. J. Samler, "Psycho-Social Aspects of Work: A Critique of Occupational Information," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 39 (February, 1961), 458-65.

The discussion centers on the need for occupational information which will reveal the psychological implications of jobs as well as the economic implications. The demands and rewards of different types of work involve both the economic and psychological aspects of men. To judge the suitability of a job for any individual, a counselor must deal with both aspects of work. Much research remains to be done if useful job descriptions are to be made available. The article provides illustrations by citing different types of job descriptions.

2. Occupational Choices Available to Disadvantaged Youth.

61. Paul Goodman, "Youth in the Organized Society: Growing Up in America," Commentary, Vol. 29, 1960; February, pp. 95-107; March, pp. 217-29; April, pp. 315-23.

The article is concerned with the problem presented to youth of having to grow up to the fact that, for the most part, jobs that are offered for their selection have little intrinsic value. The jobs may provide material security; but they do not provide much of a sense of accomplishment or contribution. The jobs are not geared to human needs in terms of honorable employment but accent the idea of gainful employment. Hence, even work as a value cannot be inculcated into youth without apparent hypocrisy, since the object of work is the pay check and not the satisfactory accomplishment of a useful job. The element of craftsmanship is removed. The object of vocational counseling and training is to fit youth for a job slot. But often, the youth see little point in a job that brings drudgery as the price of the pay check. Even in the service, jobs tend to become dehumanized--there is little sense of serving directly and deriving satisfaction from the pleasure of those being served.

The result is a feeling of alienation in response to a society which is alien insofar as it does not provide the means to real involvement.

62. Charles E. Silberman, "What Hit the Teenagers: A Massive Case of Youth Unemployment (Official explanations which blame technological change and school dropouts are plausible but are not borne out by careful analysis of job statistics)," Fortune, Vol. 71 (April, 1965), 130-3 plus.

The article asserts views which run counter to many of the more widely held beliefs concerning youth unemployment. Technology has not eliminated jobs at a low skill level as such; rather, it has tended to eliminate deadend entry-level jobs and to increase jobs in trades and services. The increase in teenage unemployment is as much a reflection of increase in teenage population together with an increase in adults available in the job market--working mothers provide much competition for jobs teenagers might seek. Also, among the unemployed those seeking entry-level jobs constitute twice the number they did ten years ago. Increased education requirements are partly the result of attempts by employers to reduce the number of interviews. It has been found that many assembly line jobs are performed better by people of lower qualifications since they do not become bored so easily. Students seeking work constitute the greatest increase in teenage unemployment just as they constitute the greatest increase among employed teenagers. Dropouts should drop out in the sense that they have little to gain in school situations geared more to middle-class students and their needs. The real problem has to do with the disadvantaged youth who sees opportunity not so much as a chance to achieve as a chance to fail.

63. Felician F. Foltman, "Apprenticeship and Skill Training: A Trial Balance," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 87 (January, 1964), 28-35.

The article describes generally the views on apprenticeship held by unions, employers, trainees and the Federal government. In an extended conclusion various proposals for improving apprenticeship programs are reviewed critically. Although surveys have shown that those who completed apprenticeship training benefited from greater financial and psychological security, many young people do not find the programs rewarding enough to complete them. Waiting lists for positions are long but dropout rates from apprenticeship programs range from 30 to 80 percent. Two main reasons are given for this paradoxical situation: pay to apprentices is too low; and the skilled trades no longer lead to high status as craftsmen in the community. The first reason is important partly because of the average age of apprentices--26--an age when young people marry and have families. Hence, means for lowering the age of apprentices must be devised. The second reason produces ambivalance toward the vocation as a career. Pre-apprenticeship training programs might help youth to gain a clearer view of the career potentials of a trade. But the major bloc to the recognition of the needs of the apprentices lies with those employers and unions

which see apprenticeship programs as a means to fulfill their own needs and tend to give little heed to the needs of youth and to the dimensions of an overall socio-economic policy designed to deal with the problems of society.

3. Statistics on the Employment Status of Youth (Not Annotated).

64. Harvey R. Hamel, "Labor Force Status of Youth, 1964 (United States)," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 88 (August, 1965), 932-7.

A statistical summary with tables and charts is offered, but without the breakdown between graduates and dropouts.

(The following series of yearly reports, entries 65-68, present a summary of statistics derived from supplemental questions to the monthly survey of the labor force conducted by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics).

65. Carl Rosenfeld, "Employment of School-Age Youth, October, 1962 (Under 25 years of age)," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 86 (August, 1963), 907-13.

66. Harvey R. Hamel, "Employment of School-Age Youth, October, 1963 (United States)," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 87 (July, 1964), 767-73.

67. Thomas E. Swanstrom, "Employment of School-Age Youth, October, 1964 (in-school and out-of-school)," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 88 (July, 1965), 851-6.

68. Forrest A. Bogan, "Employment of School-Age Youth (both in and out of school)," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 89 (July, 1966), 739-43.

(The following articles, entries 69-75, each present a yearly report on the employment of high-school graduates and dropouts).

69. Sophia Cooper, "Employment of June 1959 High School Graduates, October 1959," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 83 (May, 1960), 500-6.

70. Sophia Cooper, "Employment of June 1960 High School Graduates," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 84 (May, 1961), 463-7.

71. Jacob Schiffman, "Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1961," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 85 (May, 1962), 502-9.

72. Jacob Schiffman, "Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1962," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 86 (July, 1963), 772-9.

73. Vera C. Perrella, "Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1963," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 87 (May, 1964), 522-9.

74. Forrest A. Bogan, "Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1964," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 88 (June, 1965), 637-43.

75. Harvey R. Hamel, "Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1965," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 89 (June, 1966), 643-9.

III. PROGRAMS FOR THE PROBLEMS.

A. Remedial and Rehabilitative Programs for the Sociological, Psychological and Educational Aspects.

1. Problems and Prospects in Establishing Programs for Youth with Special Needs.

76. W. C. Kvaraceus, "Programs of Early Identification and Prevention of Delinquency," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 65, Part I (1966), 189-220.

Instruments for prediction and programs for prevention and control of delinquent and deviant behavior are explained. Despite the variety of predictive instruments and the careful testing of the validity of the theories upon which they are based, predictive power remains low. Furthermore, it is being questioned whether different predictive tests may not have to be devised for different situations, for instance, different socio-economic class backgrounds or different types of personalities, including socialized and emotionally disturbed. Preventive programs are beset with problems: they often attempt to deal with deviant behavior of already hardened adolescents; they are frequently based on hypothetical formulations which have not been adequately researched; the programs are often one-shot efforts and afford little chance for replication to determine the effects on success of varying circumstances, including type of delinquency, social and economic conditions and community structure and attitudes. The last mentioned can have great effect on the success of a program. Ten community factors are listed and explained which must be taken into account, including attitudes toward delinquents, attitudes toward different types of prevention, type of resources available, type of structure available for the coordination and utilization of resources, and the extent of the desire of individuals in the community, especially youth themselves, to become involved in the preventive programs.

77. "Prevention of School Dropouts; Excerpts From the Dropouts, by S. O. Lichter and Others," School and Society, Vol. 90 (April 7, 1962), 159-68.

The problem is analyzed as one of emotional disturbance. The unsettling aspects of family life, neighborhoods and schools are described in terms of their relation to the emotional problems of dropouts. The techniques of case work are discussed as a means of dealing with the dropout problem and are found, upon investigation, to be of significant help in half the cases. But the problem must be dealt with more concertedly both by social agencies and communities if sufficient facilities and staff are to be provided. The trend in schools toward accelerated programs and higher achievement is criticized as not taking into account the emotional preparedness of

the students, especially of those who are potential dropouts. It is commented that schools are more and more prone to provide education for the brighter students and less and less able to respond to the problems of the deviant students.

78. R. J. Havighurst, "Educationally Difficult Student: What the Schools Can Do," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. 49 (March, 1965), 110-27.

Three types of emotionally difficult students are noted: socially disadvantaged; mentally handicapped; and privatist nonconformer. The article is concerned mainly with the first and last types. Social disadvantage has been causally related to family and personal characteristics resulting from poor environment. Such an environment provides little encouragement or response to curiosity, need for communication, the development of techniques for communication, or for a variety of play and experience. Socially disadvantaged youth develop inferior habits of hearing, seeing and thinking and are retarded in their grasp of basic concepts and judgement. Although low socio-economic status is statistically associated with this condition, it cannot be considered an independent cause since not all youth of low status are disadvantaged. But the ones who are disadvantaged constitute about 15 percent of the child population. The privatist nonconformer is, by constrast, of good or superior intelligence, but finds the public aspects of social life and economic endeavor disillusioning and distasteful; these youths withdraw from commitment and responsibility and retreat to private pleasures. The characteristics of both types are graphically explained, after which remedial education programs are described which attempt to deal with each type. The first group of disadvantaged is most in needof compensatory type programs, while the second group requires approaches which will encourage reinvolvement in social and economic processes, not to develop conformity but to encourage effective criticism and hence reponsible commitment.

79. R. J. Havighurst, "Unrealized Potentials of Adolescents; With Discussion," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. 50 (May, 1966), 75-114.

Havighurst adds to his description of youth who fail to achieve their potential and of types of programs designed to solve their problems. He gives a further breakdown of the emotionally and educationally difficult student of the first type--those who suffer social disadvantage. The first subgroup described tends to school failure and to delinquency; its members are both disadvantaged and maladjusted to the point where their potentials, perhaps not high in the first place, although still not defective, are so seriously inhibited that, while improvement may be possible, the chances of progressing beyond a low average of ability are not good. Programs designed to serve these youth tend to fall far short of what had been hoped for them. More work needs to be done and far more resources committed, for it is well worth helping even a small portion of this subgroup. The second subgroup is underdeveloped and underachieving, but their potentials have not been so drastically curtailed, This group

is very susceptible to help through programs of intensive teaching and counseling and individual attention. Such programs have been most successful, for instance the Demonstration Guidance Project in New York City. Other programs are discussed and weighed for both subgroups. The article closes with observations on the uncommitted youth of high potential. A discussion of the article is recorded which serves to highlight and expand the points raised.

80. Frank Riessman, "The Overlooked Positives of Disadvantaged Groups," The Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 33 (Summer, 1964), 225-31.

The article recommends that the positive elements, the characteristics of strength, be used to construct a theoretical basis for action programs to help disadvantaged youth. Heretofore, programs have tried to overcome weaknesses and instead of working with positive qualities have failed to recognize them and to use them. The result has been to mistake strengths for weakness: slowness has been equated with dullness; lack of reading and writing ability have been equated with lack of verbal ability. Although they lack skills and techniques they exhibit less competitiveness and more informal cooperativeness which may be used to teach skills. By emphasizing the positive, the schools will have the basis for effective curriculum changes and for improved teaching techniques. These are listed in the conclusion of the article.

81. "Compensatory Education," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 47 (October, 1965), 65-95.

A series of articles devoted to various aspects of compensatory education and its problems are assembled for this special issue. The value of compensatory education and the attitudes of those involved in dealing with the disadvantaged in schools are debated critically. The positive aspects of socialization in the lower classes are discussed. Specific responses and programs are described.

82. C. L. Byerly, "A School Curriculum for Prevention and Remediation of Deviancy," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 65, Part I (1966), 221-257.

The article asserts that the public school must assume primary responsibility for dealing with the problems of deviancy. The efforts so far have been labeled compensatory education; but compensatory education has been given many forms, and its goals have been formulated in a variety of ways. The dimensions of compensatory education are described with a focus on curriculum development. Specific programs throughout the country are then discussed. The general tendency has been to involve parents, other community agencies and specialists from the fields of psychology and social welfare. It is noted that there is a consensus that programs should begin at an early level--preschool--but there is no established approach to what such a program should be. Generally, instead of trying to get the student to adapt to a fixed set of expectations, schools should adapt to the needs of students, having recourse to different programs depending on student needs.

83. G. P. Liddle, "Secondary School as an Instrument for Preventing Juvenile Delinquency," The High School Journal, Vol. 47 (January, 1964), 146-52.

The article provides some vivid illustrations of successful and unsuccessful teaching of disadvantaged youth and of the attitudes underlying the different approaches. The discussion relates delinquent behavior to educational retardation and to exclusion from accepted and established patterns of economic and social activities. The role of the school is placed in question insofar as a choice is open to schools and teachers: is the sense of failure and exclusion to be intensified as a result of methods of instruction, course content and type of extracurricular activities? or, are the students to be taught, helped to become interested, and provided with activities in which they feel they can participate? Is the delinquent to be dealt with as "scum?" or is the delinquent to be provided with the means to education and helped to take advantage of those means?

84. N. J. Long and W. C. Morse, "Special Classes for Children with Social and Emotional Problems in the Public Schools," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 65 Part I (1966), 315-343.

"One of the reasons for the current interest in special classes is the recognition that incidental instruction, usually without any total therapeutic plan, neither arrests the pupil's maladjustment nor improves the chances of his eventual return to the classroom." The article outlines the problems faced by teachers and pupils in special classes and discusses the factors which must be considered in planning a program regardless of the particular goals or methods established. Special classes tend to lack a careful plan, trained staff and total school support. "....classes reflect the whole spectrum of educational philosophies ranging from therapeutic to custodial, and procedures ranging from permissive to the highly structured." The different theories upon which programs may be based are outlined and three examples of special classes are presented. A technique for establishing communication with the children, life-space interviewing, is described and recommended. Special classes are no substitute for "....needed services of a more complete type...." They must be part of an overall program which includes a full range of support for needy students and their teachers, from regular classroom to complete institutionalization. Special education is new and needs systematic and innovative experimentation if a synthesis of workable theories and methods is to be devised; without this it will become moribund.

85. G. L. Downing, "Supervision Experiment With the Disadvantaged," Educational Leadership, Vol. 21 (April, 1964), 433-5 plus.

In New York City junior high schools many beginning teachers found that they could not communicate with those of their pupils who came from disadvantaged backgrounds. These teachers, themselves from middle-class backgrounds, found

that they could not understand "the behavior and the motivations of the underprivileged children." Both pupils and teachers misunderstood each others' motives; they did not share the same language or the same values. The method of teaching and the content of the courses did not appeal to the students who had "no standards by which to judge" the value of what was being offered. The result was that the teachers tended to be unable to stay with their jobs. A project was designed to provide the teachers with counseling and guidance in the preparation of curricula which the students could accept and in how to communicate with students and establish an effective relationship with them. The hope was that by building the professional competence of the teachers, commitment would also be developed which would enable them to continue their important work. The project was designed to enable demonstration of methods devised in actual classroom situations and to provide support to the teachers without impinging on their professional status.

86. J. D. Lohman and J. T. Carey, "Rehabilitation Programs for Deviant Youth," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 65 Part I (1966), 373-397.

Programs dealing with delinquency tend to be doctrinaire in the sense that each tends to emphasize one or another aspect of the social sciences in formulating an active approach. In fact, the problem must be approached with the recognition that economic, psychological and sociological factors are all relevant and interrelated. Relevant activities might be formulated better if the problem were categorized more according to the nature of delinquency than according to the nature of academic disciplines. The article describes the types of programs which might be usefully undertaken in the following categories:

1. programs oriented to the individual delinquent apart from group and community processes;
2. programs dealing with the individual delinquent as part of a group; and
3. programs which address the community as a whole.

All programs would be concerned with both the "confirming influences as well as the initial disturbing conditions." And more important still, "the crux of delinquency prevention is to address such deviations and aberrations without dramatizing youngsters as evil. . . .It is this public naming of the delinquent, and the resulting conception of himself as delinquent, which is the heart of the prevention problem."

87. R. A. DuFresne, "Perspective On the Dropout Problem; The Stay-Ins," Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. 40 (January, 1965), 22-4.

The school is not a place for psychotherapy and most school staffs cannot administer it on a sufficiently professional basis. The answer to the dropout problem is to provide special classes with special expert staff for the slow learners and the especially mischievous or immature; but those potential dropouts who are actually "hoods" can

only hurt the chances of other students for a decent education and can themselves only be made more bitter and offensive by being forced to remain in school. Students who are confirmed truants or delinquents need other special institutions. The school is not the place in which to deal with or help them, and when it is made to be the school, teachers, students and the quality of education suffer.

88. J. P. Cangemi, "Short-Term Terminal Course for Potential Dropouts," American Vocational Journal, Vol. 40 (January, 1965), 10 plus.

The article maintains that once hard-core dropouts display the characteristics by which they can be identified, it is too late to be able to do anything for them, educationally. Recommended, however, is a kind of classroom Youth Opportunity Center which will give them a glimpse of the world of work and of some of the mechanics and problems of getting along in that world. The content of the course which is outlined may be stated as pre-employment training, counseling and guidance. The material of the course should be transmitted by the teacher through rapport with the students rather than through lectures.

89. C. L. Marburger, "School-Community Relations and Maladjusted Youth," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 65, Part I (1966), 259-279.

The school cannot supply all specialized welfare and remedial services and it should not attempt to supplant the specialized agencies. But the impoverished family is served by some 16 special agencies with much duplication of effort, extra expense and waste of time; this may confuse those trying to provide the services needed and it may confound the recipients. The school is in a unique position within a community to provide leadership and coordination through its community involvement and precisely because it has direct contact with all the youth in the community and hence with all the families. Furthermore, the school represents a great physical resource and a pool of expertise. The school cannot be effective in such a role unless and until it also adapts its curricula to meet special needs and special cases. Such innovation would itself be a spur to the community to meet directly the problems presented by disadvantaged. The article describes the kinds of actions that a school can take to create coordinated community programs.

2. Programs in the High Schools.

90. H. T. Hillson and F. C. Myers, "Demonstration Guidance Project," High Points, Vol. 43 (May, 1961), 5-20.

The project reported was designed to serve emotionally and culturally handicapped youth from backgrounds of poverty and broken homes. The IQ's in the first such group ranged from 70 to 141; both boys and girls were included, and all them were

handicapped by severe underachievement. The program was conducted in the regular junior high school and high school. It provided for small classes; remedial and intensive instruction; individual group counseling and guidance with additional social and psychological services as needed, including contact with parents and consultations. Special instruction was devised, including prevocational and pre-college preparation , concered with applications and what to expect in the world of higher education and of work. A full range of cultural activities was arranged to help overcome cultural deprivation; these included visits to museums, opportunity to see the performing arts, and trips to colleges and places of historical interests. The focus of the program was to provide individual attention and personal support. The results reported show for the great majority a significant increase in IQ, including 64 who gained from 6 to 40 points. Sixty students went on to some form of higher education; 53 dropped out before graduating, but of these 22 left for health reasons or because they moved. The group did two or three times better than did the regular students. The project aimed not only at motivation but also at enabling and encouraging application and diligence. The resulting increase in confidence and poise was not the least of the benefits attained.

91. G. L. Chamberlin and C. D. Catterall, "Acceleration for the Overage Potential Dropout?" Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 45 (November, 1963), 98-100.

It was noted that at a new junior high school the underachievement and grade retardation associated with the potential dropout did not jibe with the IQ displayed, which was average. It was felt that since grade retardation could only increase discouragement, was rarely made up in high school and resulted in older retardates being socially out of place in their classes, that an accelerated program should be instituted to cover two grades in one year. The sense of failure and frustration was dealt with by building the image of the special class as something truly special--a scientific experiment. This insured that the students in the class would not suffer loss of face or be singled out by other students as being stupid. The only requirements placed on the students were that they receive parental consent, that they work hard, and that they behave. As a result of being afforded special attention and concern, only five of the twenty-five once potential dropouts did actually drop out of high school, while the rest did as well as or better than the average student.

92. N. E. Hall, Jr., "The Youth Development Project: A School-Based Delinquency Prevention Program," The Journal of School Health, Vol. 36 (March, 1966), 97-103.

The article reports on one phase of the Ohio State University Delinquency Research Project--the Youth Development Project. The basic thesis was that schools could offer special programs at a not prohibitive cost which could be effective in dealing with the basic problem of dropout and delinquency prone youth: a negative self image. Meeting for three consecutive periods with one teacher throughout the

school year, students selected from a group of difficult youth were offered material directly relevant to their concerns and problems: vocations, family, interpersonal relations, law enforcement and remedial reading. Materials biased by middle-class values and abstracted from the actual experiences of the youths were replaced by directly relevant materials which communicated academic content by discussing concrete problems. Physical and psychological forms of coercion were eschewed in favor of a rule which inculcated respect for the rights of others: anyone infringing the right to learn of students or the right to teach of teachers was asked to leave the room and to return when he had thought it over. Employers, teachers, policemen and others spoke to the classes with the object of presenting themselves as humans with problems and tastes and not just as symbols of adult authority. To gain a better view of students as individuals, teachers visited students' families and discussed problems with a child psychiatrist. The project did show that the youths could become interested in learning and that punitive controls were not necessary.

93. D. A. Davis, "Experimental Study of Potential Dropouts," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 40 (May, 1962), 799-802.

The premise that dropouts have a low level of self-esteem and that the resulting lack of confidence is causally related to dropping out led the researchers to test the effect of special efforts to establish friendly relations with the students by providing more counseling, discussion of problems, and activities designed to bring pleasure in school. A matching control group was set up which received normal class attention. The results of a battery of tests showed that the test group tended to drop out less, to get higher marks and to have fewer discipline problems or less severe ones. There was no appreciable difference in verbal and mathematical achievement or in realism of self-concept.

94. J. W. Duncan, "Motivation and the Academically Troubled Student," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. 49 (January, 1965), 92-6.

The article reports an experiment conducted to determine the relative efficacy of two different approaches to conseling school failures. Two groups of school failures were established, one of which was to receive formal counseling and the other informal counseling. Formal counseling uses "any and all available methods to bring about an improvement in effort and/ or cooperation; methods range from therapy to threat of suspension, and the attitude is similar to that of outreach in YOC programs. The informal approach waits for the student to initiate contact with the counselor. The results showed that the formal approach was far more efficacious, although nothing final could be concluded because of the small sample which detracted from the significance of the statistics.

95. F. Shaw, "Educating Culturally Deprived Youth in Urban Centers," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 45 (November, 1963), 91-7.

The article is concerned with the vital role that schools must play in improving the environment in slum areas. The schools, as part of that environment, are responsible for helping disadvantaged students to raise their achievement level and their aspirations. The article describes two projects, one in Detroit and one in New York City, which were designed to achieve those goals. The programs functioned in three areas:

1. the work of teachers was reinforced through two devices: consultants were brought in to run workshops for the teachers and to help with special problems in curriculum development; three specialists were added in the areas of community relations, counseling/ guidance and remedial reading;
2. parents were involved through special classes designed to upgrade their academic abilities and heighten their interest in their children's schooling so that they could become more involved with efforts of their children; clubs or courses were formed to deal with questions of family relations and home economics;
3. after-school and evening activities were established which drew on the resources of the community in recreation, cultural enrichment, and therapeutic programs.

The problem of financing was discussed, and although the cost was greater per capita than for the regular school program, especially because of smaller classes and special staff, the successes were notable. Additional programs were described including ones for special preparation of teachers.

96. H. Slotkin, "New Programs for Dropouts in New York City: A Coordinated Approach," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, Vol. 10 (Summer, 1962), 235-9; Vol. 12 (Winter, 1963-64), 127-132.

In 1960 a special commission to deal with the dropout problem in New York City authorized three experimental projects: a school-work program to prevent dropping out; an evening school program for dropouts who wanted to continue their schooling; and a pre-employment program for youth alienated from school and oriented toward jobs. The first article describes these programs in terms of youth to be served, objectives and methods. The second article evaluates the three programs. The criterion of success was the development of clearer and more realistic vocational goals as the basis for motivation to greater achievement in school and work. The method of evaluation was to compare the test group with a control group selected according to matching criteria designed to control major variables. The test group in each program showed far more success in terms of the criteria established--clearer purpose and greater achievement. As a result the programs were incorporated into the educational system.

97. W. R. Smith and G. C. Houston, "Prep Club Program: Preparation for Employment Program, Everett, Mass.," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, Vol. 12 (Summer, 1964), 247-54.

The article describes in detail a program of career orientation and guidance for high school youth. The program is aimed at involving the resources of the community in support of activities for youth within a club structure. Business and industrial people civil leaders and educators cooperated in establishing these clubs and in providing guidance. The club activities included field trips, lectures, discussions and role playing--all designed to provide a very real, tangible experience for youth with regard to their own position in relation to careers and to the world of work.

98. G. Arnstein, editor, "...To the Advantage of Secondary Education; A Discussion of the Neighborhood Youth Corps," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. 50, (September, 1966), 22-36.

The major portion of the article is devoted to description by three high school principals of NYC programs at their schools. Among the many points made are the following:

1. it was seen as important to avoid the stigma of poverty attached to NYC enrollees;
2. attempts to involve students and parents in the goals of the program failed until matters of immediate importance were introduced into discussion as a means of involving needy families--such topics as housing problems, jobs, community resources and government programs;
3. only about 20 percent of the faculty were interested in devoting extr time to get the programs going;
4. social studies departments injected into their curricula material related to individual attitudes and social and economic activities and problems, including poverty, poor housing and real estate interests;
5. important effects on enrollees of additional income and responsible involvement were improved self-respect and, hence, improved conduct and standards of dress, increased motivation and effective goal orientation.

The amount of individual counseling and supervision was seen to be very important, since for the students this meant evidence of concern for them through individual attention. Where these facets were lacking, improvement was far less evident and the program tended to fail the students and hence not to prevent dropping out and not to inculcate good work habits.

3. Programs Outside of the High Schools.

99. L. Pope, "Reading Program for School Dropouts; JOIN (Job O ientation in Neighborhoods)," Journal of Reading, Vol. 9 (May, 1966), 367-78.

In New York City, about one-half of the 77,000 out-of-work youth, 16 to 21 years old, were functional illiterates. These were dropouts faced with deadend jobs if they could find them. JOIN (Job Orientation in Neighborhoods) was initially concerned with vocational rehabilitation but was led to establish remedial reading programs because of the extent of the problem presented by illiteracy among the unemployed youth. ho wished instruction were eligible to attend the locally established classes. those not in NYC programs or in the vocational training aspect of JOIN, both of which provided weekly stipends, an incentive of $ 1.25 was offered per session attended. Instruction was in small groups or by individual tutoring. Attendance was best where incentives were available, and success was greatest with the complete illiterates and with the more advanced; the middle group at the 5th or 6th grade levels were hardest to reach and hence to teach. Vocational training programs emphasized the importance of literacy for success on the job and thus stimulated attendance. In the classes the more advanced students were used as assistants to help the more retarded; this worked to the advantage of all since it boosted the confidence of the assistants and made it easier for the more retarded, since they were more receptive to their peers. Volunteer evening sessions were instituted for those on jobs already. The article describes the administrative and staffing problems and the problems connected with devising instructional material.

100. N. F. Simeon, "Chicago's Vocational Guidance and Education Centers; A Program for Overage Elementary School Youth," Chicago Schools Journal, Vol. 45 (October, 1963), 15-21.

Concern for underachievers and potential dropouts led to this program, designed to enable and encourage the students to continue through high school, or, where that was not feasible, to provide vocational guidance and training. The program focused on individual attention; hence, counseling and small classes were emphasized in the design. Each center was given separate facilities to avoid regular schools. Each student entering was tested, and his needs and a schedule of activities were discussed with the student and his parents. The early experiences led to the prediction that 75 percent of the special students would be able to move into a high school program. Those who had already moved from the Center to high school progressed commensurately with the total school population; most made grades of "fair" or "good" with grades of "good" predominating; and 21 percent did superior work. It was noted that the students found in the Centers a new atmosphere, one in which they were treated according to their age rather than their failure. School spirit

and motivation were developed in part as a result of introducing high school level activities and in part as a result of the individual attention and concern shown them.

101. R. C. Hickman, "Dropouts Did Come Back; A Special Summer Guidance School Program," California Education, Vol. 2 (December, 1964), 5-9.

The article reports a summer school project for dropouts in Orange County, California. The subjects were selected to be representative of the dropout universe. Of the 60 students enrolled, 55 completed the six-week session. The program was designed to encourage and facilitate realistic self-evaluation through intensive counseling and testing, clearly recognizable academic progress through special instruction techniques in English, mathematics and reading, and a sense of involvement and commitment to personal efforts through group involvement as an integrated student body. The program was successful in that the supportive devices used did produce in the students a greater sense of direction and motivation, did raise their academic skill levels, and did motivate most to return to education with new confidence.

102. S. Yoas, "Continuation Education: One Answer to Dropouts," California Education, Vol. 2 (April, 1965), 11-13.

Provision for separate continuation education high school is supported on the grounds that divergent youth who nave not succeeded in the regular schools need a special program which the regular schools are not in a position to supply if they are also to afford to regular students a normal academic program. The special continuation schools have lower student to teacher ratios, give individual instruction, arrange instruction to enable each student to proceed at his own pace, emphasize counseling for job preparation and provide remedial classes in English and arithmetic. Most of the students at continuation schools have demonstrated their need for special attention by their inability to function successfully in the regular school programs. Their failures have only intensified their needs. Hence, the special schools aim at reinforcement and renewal of motivation by encouraging better relations between student and staff--relations of mutual respect. Continuation schools provide facilities for job placement, although they also encourage students to transfer to regular schools.

103. R. O. Washington, "Milwaukee Continuation School Bridges the Gap," American Vocational Journal, Vol. 41 (April, 1966), 23-5.

Designed to serve dropouts and those who reach school leaving age without attaining a high school diploma, the continuation schools provide counseling, guidance, pre-employment training and introductory vocational instruction designed to lead students to a full-fledged vocational course in an adult vocational school. The overall aim of the program is to build the confidence and competence of the students

by providing a pleasant environment with much individual attention--competition and stress are deemphasized.

104. G. H. Elder, Jr., "Schooling of Outsiders," Sociology of Education, Vol. 39 (Fall, 1966), 324-43.

California law requires continuation education to be provided to all students who have been suspended from regular schools for ten days or more. The research reported assesses the reactions of the "outsiders," including parolees, failures, pregnant girls, and working students, to the continuation school. Communities tended to assign low status to continuation schools; this affected negatively the reaction of continuation students to the school. Small budgets sorely affected the staffing and curriculum, and this did not go unnoticed by the continuation students. Of great significance to the students was the gap between what was offered in the school and their need for work. They were quite aware that there was no necessary connection between training and actually being able to get a job. The article points out the increasing interest in continuation education: the NYC has been instructed to work more closely with schools for continuation education, and State and Federal funds seem more promising, but just as important is the need to re-educate the community attitudes. The research is reported in fair detail in relation to the background variables and their correlation with student responses to continuation schools.

105. K. S. Carpenter, "Halfway Houses for Delinquent Youth," Children, Vol. 10 (November, 1963), 224-9.

"The clientele of halfway houses generally consists of young people who are ready to return to the community but who cannot return home, who are unable to accept foster home care, and who are not ready to live independently." Halfway houses must provide a noninstitutional setting and must also provide means through which its residents can become involved with the community; contact with the community is essential. Counseling, guidance, training and job hunting occupy the residents for varying lengths of time, depending on individual need. Halfway houses also undertake the important function of aftercare.

106. N. A. Jones, "Work Activity Programs for Delinquents," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, Vol. 13 (Autumn, 1964), 45-9.

The article maintains that work activity programs are justified on the grounds that work is the dominant social reference point according to which the individual can measure his worth and status. Deviant adolescents have not had access to or have not been able to become involved with work and hence substitute other reference points that consequently bring them into conflict with society and re-enforce the sense of inadequacy and low self-worth. The article describes work programs which

provide graded steps of involvement in work activities designed to encourage delinquent youths to accept work and to find in it a socially and personally functional reference point.

107. E. E. Ruff, "Guidance as Viewed Through the Neighborhood Youth Corps," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. 50 (September, 1966), 37-42.

The South Bend Training for Employment Program (STEP), an NYC program, is centered on the counselor and counseling. Its objectives are similar to those of other programs which aim to help youth to complete school, find satisfactory jobs and break the poverty cycle. The thesis underlying STEP is that disadvantaged youth require more individual attention, direction, supervision and encouragement. Hence, counselors in STEP remain in contact with enrollees continually throughout the program. Individual and group counseling, family visists, visits on the job are all routine. Counselors try to spend as much time with each enrollee as they think the enrollee needs in order to gain a maximum of advantage from the program. STEP uses sub-professional aides to take over many of the noncounseling functions including work coordination and contacts with enrollees, work supervisors and families. The experience gleaned through STEP shows the following:

1. more counselor involvement is needed in working with disadvantaged youth;
2. vocational patterns of disadvantaged youth are different and require different reactions in schools;
3. more work-experience programs are needed; and
4. the increased use of sub-professional help should be explored.

108. R. B. Hatfield and S. Gale, "New Approach to Vocational Education; Parks Job Corps Center, Pleasanton, California," American Vocational Journal, Vol. 40 (October, 1965), 16-18.

The skill required for entry-level employment is the objective of training. The attitude with which the staff approaches the problem of training is that anyone regardless of aptitude or talent, can learn a job skill. The governing method of instruction is to involve the trainees directly in the work, using the materials and tools with which the work is concerned. Basic education is also offered but theoretical and abstract materials are not used as means to explain the nature of an occupation. It was found the the basic skills required by occupation, including the ability to make judgements and to perform with regard to them, were readily acquired by actual involvement. Involvement itself was seen as very important since it fostered commitment and satisfaction and hence reinforced the ability to learn. In general, reinforcement for the trainees was provided by admiration and rewards and by frequent, progressively staged goals.

109. M. Zivan and Others, "Vocational Rehabilitation of Institutionalized Delinquent Male Adolescents," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 43 (January, 1965), 461-7.

The article opens with a review of theories of delinquency and then establishes the relationship between personal development or adjustment and vocational development or adjustment. The presentation is directly relevant to the situation of disadvantaged youth generally. Vocational development is differentiated by a discussion of what is peculiar to it: learning a skill, work habits, on-the-job social relationships, adjustment to authority and acceptance of responsibility. Hence, work adjustment is seen as a nexus for special kinds of activities relevant to maturation and satisfaction. Vocational training may be used as part of a residential treatment program when it is understood that the training offered must be adjusted to the dominant needs of the individual--that is, work and the activities which mesh with it must come to be seen by the youth as a better way to satisfy his needs than by asocial and illegal activities. The first barrier to be dealt with is that of the individual's sense of failure and hopelessness. Hence, involvement in the program is achieved by carefully graded steps which remove the threat of failure and censure and which provide tangible economic and social rewards--pay and the satisfaction of companionship in a work group. Continual counseling builds awareness of the need for change and of the relevance of the work as a desirable goal and hence of the training as an acceptable endeavor.

110. J. L. Massimo and M. F. Shore, "Job-Focused Treatment for Antisocial Youth," Children, Vol. 11 (July, 1964). 143-6.

This project was designed to serve youth who had histories of truancy and delinquency and who had dropped out of or had been expelled from school. The area involved did not suffer from unemployment and was comprised mostly of middle income families. All of the youth involved needed psychotherapeutic care as well as remedial education and vocational guidance. Since such youth are very hard to reach in a clinical situation, the pattern of service focused initially on helping each youth to find and hold a job. Each case was handled individually and the counselor met with the youth at a place and time of the youth's choosing. All the help afforded initially was of a direct and practical nature--getting a driver's license, looking at different jobs together and investigating openings together. Each case was conducted with complete flexibility with the counselor taking advantage of situations as they arose to reach the youth but always affording both support and a realistic but friendly reaction to the youth's problems and conduct. Thus, vocational guidance was used as a role playing mechanism and as a means to win the youth's confidence and acceptance of regular psychotherapy and remedial education. All phases of the service to each youth were handled by a single practioner. Job placement became the matrix for the services provided. There was no central location, but each youth was contacted personally by a practioner within a day of leaving school. The relationship was carried through all of the youth's activities to insure motivation and commitment.

111. B. W. MacLennan, "New Careers as Human Service Aides," Children, Vol. 13 (September, 1966), 190-4.

The article describes the first two years of a Washington, D. C. program to reach delinquent and hard-core dropouts. As developed, the program negotiates with perspective employers to establish permanent employment positions for disadvantaged youth. The youths begin at the level of aide and only those positions which guarantee the opportunity for promotion are used in the program, since it was felt that deadend jobs would inhibit the development of motivation. The type of work is human service--counseling aides and technicians, teaching aides, recreation aides, etc. The youths are placed on the job immediately and it is arranged for them to be involved in the work situation totally and not to be kept on the outside of things. The work itself is used as the springboard for counseling and remedial education. Thus, the program is solidly grounded in action with clear goals and practical significance. The work situations are used to help the youths to become more aware of the nature and meaning of group and personal relationships; tasks performed on the job become devices for teaching arithmetic, reading and spelling, as well as some basic social and psychological processes and the technical skills required by the work. In this way the youths are motivated to return to school or, at least, to pursue their work and further related vocational training consistently, responsibly and with a sense of satisfaction and accomplishment. Again, the work situation is used as the matrix for the other services provided in the program.

112. H. B. Wood, "What Social Studies Teachers Can Learn From Job Corps Experience," Social Education, Vol. 30 (May, 1966), 341-3.

The basic objectives of the social studies program at the Job Corps Center may be described as instruction in interpersonal and group relations, including the social, economic, political and emotional aspects. The method advocated eschews classroom work and advocates laboratory type instruction to deal with material to be learned by community and dormitory involvement. This learning is informal and what is learned is not identified as such. When ready, the youths are introduced to more explicitly defined learning situations and materials. The intermediate stage is concerned with the understanding of self, family, community and basic economic, psychological, social and legal mechanisms to which the youth must adjust. The final stage of social stduies offerings broaches more theoretical material and may introduce the student to anyone of the fields of humanities or the social sciences from a more academic point of view.

113. T. D. Lingo, "Dropping Back Into High School; Adventure Trails Camp-School of Mountain Creativity, Black Hawk, Colorado," Education, Vol. 86 (May, 1966), 557-60.

This article describes what is admittedly a very different program. Dropouts, delinquents, slow learners and normal creative youths are, after referral from their schools,

placed in an environment designed to put each individual in direct personal contact with the natural world and with the skills necessary to live in that world. Youths, with guidance, progress at their own pace toward cooperation with others in the camp, developing through participation a sense of personal involvement and responsibility which become the basis of common rules and goals which are eventually established and accepted. The premises are that the disadvantaged youths have, through conflict with their environment, lost their natural curiosity, joy of discovery and sense of participation with others that produce real personal meaning and effective motivation. These disadvantaged youths have instead lacerated egos with concomitant guilts and fears. The object of the program is to take them out of the environment which has nurtured that pattern and to place them in a natural one in which relationships are simple and direct, as are the experiences to be had. In this way it is hoped that each youth may gain a new perspective on himself and rekindle what had been stifled: curiosity, motivation, involvement, all having personal significance.

B. Remedial and Training Programs Dealing With Vocational Aspects.

1. Problems and Prospects in Establishing Vocational Programs.

114. D. Schreiber, "Work Experience Program," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 65, Part I (1966), 280-314.

Although it has not been proved that work-experience programs do indeed reduce the tendency to delinquency in most cases, work-experience programs have met with some success. It must be understood that the programs are still in an experimental stage and that data is being gathered systematically. Although not every program works well, each attempt contributes to an understanding of the methodology and principles involved and, thus, toward the eventual establishment of an effective array of programs. The justification for proceeding with work-experience programs is based on the hypothesis that the achievement of a work role by an individual is essential to his participation in society and directly related to the development of a positive self-image. When an individual can find no social role he will become alienated from others and alien to them; his status is identified by his role, and his role is mostly identified in society by his work. Work-experience programs are proper to the functioning of school systems, since it is the purpose of schools to provide the means to individuals to achieve a role successfully. Usually this is an effect of academic programs; but where these fail, work-experience programs may be appropriate alternatives to the school in fulfilling its responsibilities. The general characteristics and problem of work-experience programs are outlined and the different types of programs are described. Common goals and characteristics are stated in a conclusion.

115. N. P. Berdan, "Growing Pains With the Work-Experience Program," Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. 40 (December, 1965), 351-6.

The article is critical of several aspects of work-experience programs in California, where such programs have been legally recognized since 1958. First, the emphasis on employer needs rather than on the needs of the trainees is questioned; it is recommended that the trainee receive no pay for on-the-job experience during school hours but only if he stays on the job after school. Child labor laws often deny to the trainee the right to use machinery on the job that he is being taught to use in the school shop. This presents a block in work-experience programs. Finally, the unions tend to deny students access to work-experience positions on the grounds that they interfer with the union's own apprenticeship programs. The article comments that the work-experience programs, if pay were not included for what, after all, amounts to school work, would have as their objectives work for learning and not for pay, and that through such programs unions and employers too would have a better trained and better acclimatized labor force to employ.

116. D. U. Levine, "Work-Study Programs for Alienated High School Students," Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. 41 (December, 1966), 371-8.

Work-study programs are one of the major tools developed to help disadvantaged and alienated youth to overcome their disadvantages. The major object is to prepare them for employment through job experience, instruction and counseling, and there is the hope, too, that where this goal is met there will also be a reduction of aggressiveness and a greater sense of involvement in school and community life. But the overall effectiveness and the great range of possible operational arrangements have not been subjected to systematic examination and evaluation. Hence, we do not have adequate theoretical framework and cannot choose rationally between alternative program designs. Given the large amount of support available for these programs and their importance in the attempt to help disadvantaged youth, far more attention must be given to evaluation. Also necessary to success is a positive attitude toward the programs on the part of administrators, not only in terms of assigning adequate resources but also in terms of combating any stigmata due to prejudice against the programs as being too low status. Emphasis is also placed on the need to introduce these programs at the lower grade levels where there is more chance to influence behavior.

117. Claudia L. Reeve, "Work-Study Programs: An Integral and Revitalizing Part of High School Curriculum," Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. 39 (January, 1964), 38-42.

Work-study programs have tended to be used as a dumping ground for low caliber students--potential dropouts. As a result, in the eyes of the students, teachers and potential employers, the programs have assumed a low status and everyone is chary

handicapped who would normally have a harder time in getting placed. Also, some withdrawals were due to immediate offers of employment. Furthermore, completers tended often to be younger--high school graduates--and hence found it more difficult to obtain employment than did those who withdrew or the completers who were older. The far greater number of very high wage level jobs fell to the completers. However, many completers were still limited to entry-level jobs because they were young, handicapped or entering into a new type of employment following a reduction in opportunities for work in their fields prior to retraining.

121. L. S. VanderWerf, "Needed Research in Vocational Education," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 46 (April, 1965), 405-10.

This article appears in a special issue of the periodical entitled, "The Swing to Vocational-Technical Education," and although other articles may be of interest in one or another aspect of the subject, for the present purposes the discussion of needed research covers most of the relevant ground. The article consist of commentary and questions designed to show what problems must be researched if we are to achieve a systematic view and policy for vocational education. The topics covered include manpower policy, education for national needs, organization of programs and program content, staffing of programs and, lastly, vocational behavior.

122. W. B. Runge and E. J. Gradoni, "Preparatory Distributive Education for Youth With Special Needs," Business Education Forum, Vol. 18 (April, 1964), 19-21.

The article presents an inventory of needs, problems, program content and lines of further investigation, all with regard to preparing disadvantaged youth for work in distributive occupations. The article is really an extended outline and therefore does not propose or describe systematically an actual program or exactly how one or another type of activity might solve a particular problem.

123. "Distributive Education: A Nationwide Survey," Business Education World, Vol. 47 (September, 1966), 19-24 plus.

A useful inventory of the status and trends of distributive education programs in 41 States and Puerto Rico. The information was provided by state supervisors in response to a solicitation by Business Education World.

124. School Shop, April 1964, 1965, 1966.

Annual surveys of the vocational-technical education field include articles on the general practice of vocational education, specific programs, types of schools, types of curricula, goals and methods.

2

handicapped who would normally have a harder time in getting placed. Also, some withdrawals were due to immediate offers of employment. Furthermore, completers tended often to be younger--high school graduates--and hence found it more difficult to obtain employment than did those who withdrew or the completers who were older. The far greater number of very high wage level jobs fell to the completers. However, many completers were still limited to entry-level jobs because they were young, handicapped or entering into a new type of employment following a reduction in opportunities for work in their fields prior to retraining.

121. L. S. VanderWerf, "Needed Research in Vocational Education," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 46 (April, 1965), 405-10.

This article appears in a special issue of the periodical entitled, "The Swing to Vocational-Technical Education," and although other articles may be of interest in one or another aspect of the subject, for the present purposes the discussion of needed research covers most of the relevant ground. The article consist of commentary and questions designed to show what problems must be researched if we are to achieve a systematic view and policy for vocational education. The topics covered include manpower policy, education for national needs, organization of programs and program content, staffing of programs and, lastly, vocational behavior.

122. W. B. Runge and E. J. Gradoni, "Preparatory Distributive Education for Youth With Special Needs," Business Education Forum, Vol. 18 (April, 1964), 19-21.

The article presents an inventory of needs, problems, program content and lines of further investigation, all with regard to preparing disadvantaged youth for work in distributive occupations. The article is really an extended outline and therefore does not propose or describe systematically an actual program or exactly how one or another type of activity might solve a particular problem.

123. "Distributive Education: A Nationwide Survey," Business Education World, Vol. 47 (September, 1966), 19-24 plus.

A useful inventory of the status and trends of distributive education programs in 41 States and Puerto Rico. The information was provided by state supervisors in response to a solicitation by Business Education World.

124. School Shop, April 1964, 1965, 1966.

Annual surveys of the vocational-technical education field include articles on the general practice of vocational education, specific programs, types of schools, types of curricula, goals and methods.

2. Vocational Training Programs.

125. J. P. Walsh and W. Selden, "Vocational Education in the Secondary School," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 64, Part I (1965), 88-134.

Planning the scope and content of a program of vocational education must be a continuing and flexible process, since the setting in which a program functions will change. The article outlines eight aspects of needed program activity:

1. detailed and accurate labor market information;
2. guidance and counseling;
3. early warning of employment shifts--hence, close contact with employers;
4. research to gain understanding of the functioning of the labor market;
5. program of basic academic education;
6. vocational education and retraining;
7. apprentice and pre-apprentice training; and
8. placement service covering the complete transition from school to work.

The article then describes the curriculum possibilities with reference to major occupation areas, problems and goals of instruction, and the role of the teacher.

126. G. Fernandez, "Project: Vocational Education," Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. 40 (February, 1965), 65-8.

The article describes a work-study program designed to enlist the cooperation of the community. The program was limited to juniors and seniors with a demonstrated sense of responsibility to school, community, classmates and program. The program coordinator maintained close contact between trainers in the community and the student trainees. Classroom instruction emphasized subjects directly applicable to the work assignments and to employment in general. Community cooperation was enlisted through discussion groups, newspaper articles and speeches. The aim with regard to the students was to encourage them to remain in high school and to provide them with direct access to employment and to participation in the community. In turn, the community was provided not only with a source of labor trained to fill the stated needs of employers but with workers with whom they were familiar as individuals.

127. L.D. Haskew and I. W. Tumlin, "Vocational Education in the Curriculum of the Common School," National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Vol. 64, Part I (1965), 64-87.

The article outlines the relationship between vocational and academic education in the common school. Vocational education has three objectives (and three related types of content):

1. to use work and occupational information as illustrating types of communication and calculation and different kinds of social and economic conditions;
2. to make clear the occupational aspects of our culture and to help the understanding of social dynamics and interpersonal relations; and
3. to afford orientation for specific jobs and to provide the broad fundamentals necessary for quick and successful learning on the job.

The article then takes up the position of vocational education with regard to the responsibilities of the common school to students, communities and employers. In general, along with increasing emphasis on intellectual training through academic subjects, talent utilization will receive much attention in the common school. Hence, the vocational motif will gain in importance insofar as students' talents are best expressed through one or another vocation. In addition, training in the common school will tend to become preparatory rather than complete in itself. And, the common school will have for its focus not so much the community of its location as the "American socio-economic-cultural enterprise."

128. Burr D. Coe, "Best Place for Vocational Education; the Vocational and Technical High School," NEA Journal, Vol. 54 (December, 1965), 50-51.

The article states the advantages of the technical and vocational high school over the comprehensive school: more and better facilities for training in careers; excellent record in job placement; more relaxing environment for the students since they are among their peers; lower costs since a larger area is served; high level of motivation since the students who attend have elected to do so out of interest in a career; greater potential for work-experience programs; more up-to-date training through closer contact with the actual world of work. The article also comments that post-high-school training might not interest many students who cannot afford to or are uninterested in remaining in school beyond the 12 years.

129. J. B. Zack, "Best Place for Vocational Education; the Comprehensive High School," NEA Journal, Vol. 54 (December, 1965), 48-50.

This article claims that students shunted into special technical and vocational schools are forced to make career choices before they have a real basis of self-knowledge and of knowledge of the possibilities of alternative career choices. Instead, vocational training should be available in comprehensive schools during the final two years. Career training programs should be devised in the light of employment needs in the area. Thus the advantages of a general education would be included in a program of instruction aimed finally, for those who do not go on to college, at preparation for a vocation.

130. J. B. Zack, "Incorporating Vocational Education Into the Comprehensive High School," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. 49 (May, 1965), 104-10.

The article analyzes the decision in New York City to merge academic and vocational high schools into comprehensive schools and describes the program which is to emerge. The decision excluded special academic high schools and the unit trade schools, both of which prepare a specially selected student body. The general vocational program had come under criticism for several reasons:

1. the decision to engage in a vocational course had to be made in the eighth or ninth year, before students could be expected to make a realistic and firm assessment;
2. once a student engaged in a vocational program it was very hard to change to a different program if he felt dissatisfied;
3. the shop requirements of half the school day of the Smith-Hughes Act proved to be a rigid formula--individual abilities and differing requirements of different vocational courses were not considered;
4. students in academic schools could not transfer to vocational schools without having to start again at the beginning because the courses were graded in sequence;
5. the courses were rigid, partly because retooling to be responsive to technological changes and to changes in the job market was too expensive;
6. job market analysis is difficult, hence it has been hard to predict in advance what kind of training would be best;
7. vocational schools have tended to get the problem students and the disadvantaged.

A comprehensive school program would be designed to be flexible, allowing students to experiment in preparatory courses before committing themselves for the final two years. The academic content would be improved with compensatory courses offered. Different comprehensive schools would provide different vocational emphases.

131. W. L. Ramsey, "Penta-County Story; Area School Concept," American Vocational Journal, Vol. 41 (May, 1966), 17-20.

The article describes in detail what might well become a model for the area vocational-technical school.

132. "States Expand Area Schools and Programs," American Vocational Journal, Vol. 38 (September, 1963), 13-14: Supplemented in Vol. 38 (December, 1963), 31-3.

To meet the need for vocational training, area vocational schools have been established in 33 States. The area school serves a larger district than that of the local school and thereby commands larger resources in taxes, potential staff and students.

Larger resources in turn enable more flexibility and diversity in curriculum and facilities. The 300 such schools in operation do not follow any particular pattern but meet the local manpower requirements and the interests of those desiring vocational training. Authorization and financing of such schools vary in the several States, but in 26 of the 33 States surveys are being conducted to determine the nature and extent of needs for vocational schools and of the areas to be served. Moreover, area vocational programs are conducted in comprehensive high schools, technical schools, junior and community colleges. Programs vary in length and content, depending on what is required at the time. This flexibility allows the area vocational programs to be responsive to varying circumstances.

133. T. Urich and J. Mauck, "Best Place for Vocational Education; the Two Year Community College," NEA Journal, Vol. 54 (December, 1965), 51-2.

The two-year community college vocational training program is advocated in this article, on the grounds that the staff is better prepared and the instructional program and facilities more complete. In addition, the students will have had a more solid grounding in general education and hence will need less remedial work. The prestige of the community college degree is greater than that of vocational-technical schools and tends to open up more semi-professional fields to the students.

134. M. Lowens, "Needed: Vocational Institutes," High Points, Vol. 45 (November, 1963), 65-76.

Training in trades and crafts was the original goal of vocational high schools when first established 50 years ago. At that time this goal was eminently acceptable socially and economically. But vocational high schools have become a dumping ground for the less able, the retarded and the disadvantaged. Attempts to correct this by instituting more academically oriented curricula have not affected the basic problem. On the other hand, students in the general high school do not get adequate technical or trade training. The article proposes a solution which would at once improve the status of vocational training and the level of training offered. Technical institutes, would admit youth who have either graduated from high school or who have reached 17 years of age and have been out of school for three months; they would be accepted for intensive training. Younger adolescents do not have sufficiently firm vocational goals and should be required to achieve the basic literacy of the three R's in a regular high school course. Youths who are not qualified academically or who lack motivation for the institutes should be afforded the opportunity of remedial and vestibule courses. It must be accepted that some youths just do not have the ability for any but menial tasks. The training at the institutes would be completed by age 18 or 19--ages when it is far easier to find work that at 15, 16 or 17.

135. V. S. Hart, "Seafaring Training 1964; Marine Technology Program Creates New Job Opportunities for Youth in Maine," American Vocational Journal, Vol. 39 (April, 1964), 36-8.

The problem for which this remedy was devised was that of a high dropout rate and an even higher rate of able high school completers who did not take advantage of the generally available provisions for higher education. The essence of the project was to provide an attractive choice which would make sense to youth in Maine and thereby make further education seem sensible to them. The project was organized to open a range of possible occupations related to marine technology. This had the added advantage of helping to revitalize interest in the use of one of Maine's two resources--the sea. Despite too limited resources the project is a demonstrated success. More interest in education was aroused and performance in school improved. Placement in satisfying occupations proved no problem for graduates.

136. J. Thomas Weyant, "D. E. Assists Agri-Business Project," American Vocational Journal, Vol. 38 (December, 1963), 24-5.

The object of the project was to develop jobs in the distribution of agricultural products and equipment for rural youth who had no chance of engaging in productive agriculture and to train those youths for the jobs developed. The principles of distributive education were applied, and on-the-job experience was combined with instruction in classrooms in basic business and sales skills. The program was the result of cooperation between the potential employers and the schools. The success of the program was reflected in the high rate of completion, the lowering of resistance to normal school routines and the improvement of work habits.

IV. PROBLEMS AND GOALS FOR PUBLIC POLICY.

137. Melvin Herman, "Problems of Evaluation," American Child, Vol. 47 (March, 1965), 5-10. (A reply in part to the article by Cloward and Ontell, Vol. 47 (March, 1965), 6-10).

Information upon which to base reliable evaluations of present youth programs is lacking. Hence, there is no adequate basis upon which to draw either negative conclusions or pictures of success. To achieve well considered critiques evaluations must be undertaken which set forth data clearly in relation to goals, procedures and results; and each of these three categories must be refined by careful questioning to exhaust their possibilities. Not only must researchers be experts in the fields related to the programs, but the research itself must be coordinated so it can contribute to the ability of the programs to be self-correcting. Without a commitment to careful research we cannot be assured that knowledge underlies our efforts rather than misinformation or sterotypes. Indeed, selective use of inadequate information can camouflage facts which should be evident. Youth work-programs do teach skills; economic expansion has opened jobs for those with less education and skill; youth programs must meet a variety of needs of which skill is but one--guidance, counseling, placement and basic education are not irrelevant to the needs of youth. We are not yet in a position to know how well the programs are working and shall only be able to conclude with confidence on the basis of sound evaluations.

138. Richard A. Cloward and Robert Ontell, "A Reply," American Child, Vol. 47 (March, 1965), 11.

The authors accept partly the criticism of Melvin Herman and agree that they did not present evidence adequate to their conclusions; but they state that the data is available and will be reported. However, the reply reasserts that the basic problems lie with the "institutional inequities...in our society," and that it is not evaluation that will resolve the problems but the willingness to undertake commitments to remove those inequities. This, they assert, is a value choice. The issue is really whether society will continue with programs dealing with the casualties of poverty or whether it will begin to deal with the causes.

139. S. M. Miller and Martin Rein, "Escalating the War on Poverty," American Child, Vol. 47 (March, 1965), 12-18.

The criterion of success for all youth programs is employment. Adequate jobs must be provided, not just ones which are low-grade and deadend. Programs must provide training for competence in such jobs, and before training is offered, labor market studies must be good enough to establish that such jobs do exist. If this is not done, the other aspects of the programs will be wasted and viewed by youth as a hoax. Only in such a context, then, will the aspects of the programs that deal

with personal and social problems of individual youths come to be relevant. The varied elements of youth programs will be valuable if they are organized as phases of a procedure leading to definite satisfying employment: if not, they may degenerate into devices to police the poor and reduce our fears. The usefulness of the array of programs to serve the varied needs of disadvantaged youth is threatened, as well, by the confused and confusing arrangement of competing authorizations and bureaucratic agencies which administer them. The problem of jurisdiction can best be met through decentralizing the programs and emphasizing the local community-action programs as the basic vehicles for coordinating the services offered by the youth programs. This would also tend more to involve the poor directly. Evaluation is essential; it must relate the results of the programs not just to enrollees but to all who, it was hoped, would participate; otherwise it will distort the facts it reports. Finally, the problems and the programs must be seen as everyone's responsibility in a larger program of reform.

140. M. K. Freedman, "Perspectives in Youth Employment," Children, Vol. 12 (March, 1965), 75-80.

The article presents a clear and useful review of the impetus to and the difficulties confronting government efforts to overcome the problems of youth unemployment. The approach used focuses on the substantial issues involved rather than on the administrative and legislative aspects of the relevant public policies. Hence, the discussion begins with a brief examination of the importance of the role of work to the sense of individual worth and how an adult-oriented society presents problems for youth and tends to prevent youth from contributing. The intricacies of the problem are related to the necessary complexities of services which programs must offer, including placement, counseling, preparation for work, actual training and means for encouraging and helping each youth served to begin to fill out his actual potentials. The description concludes with a discussion of the problem of finding and creating sufficient jobs so that the problems can work toward actual placement. Social and economic attitudes and institutions may well have to be changed before the problem can be dealt with effectively, and hence, we must accept that we shall have to test our attitudes and examine with more rigor the nature of "the limits of demand for the work of people."

141. Ivar Berg, "Help Wanted: New Openings for Jobless Youth in Traditional Old Free Enterprise System (What the Private Sector Can Do to Increase Employment Opportunities; Based on Address), Columbia University Forum, Vol. 7 (Fall, 1964), 10-15.

The argument is presented that the claims made for the positive social and economic functions of private enterprise could be translated into programs by private industry to employ, in excess of needs, disadvantaged youth. The article maintains that the idea of excess of needs is not to be equated with waste, but that, in fact, added workers might well and profitably provide better service and better working conditions:

adding to the service staffs would please customers; adding to industrial work forces would make possible more release time from oppressive and dull assembly line jobs. There is no reason to conclude that provision of such positions would increase significantly the margin which firms must reach to maintain an acceptable profit level. Also, there is not good reason to think that the youths would be demeaned by a so-called make-work policy, since the positions opened to them might well develop into substantial contributions to the production and distribution operations. Initiative has long been associated with private enterprise; the history of it is clear. This initiative must be exercised with regard to youth employment if it is not to fall to the public sector by default and so increase the tempo which is the complaint of many businessmen and conservatives--the increase of prerogatives of the public sector.

142. Louise Kapp, "Will 'Success' Spoil Success?" American Child, Vol. 47 (March, 1965), 1-4.

Referring especially to the elements of the antipoverty war which deal with youth, the article argues that the effective and trenchant criticism of programs which is necessary to correct and improve the efforts of the Federal Government is hampered by attempts to portray programs as having achieved success when in fact they have made hardly a beginning. The article charges those in the Federal Government who are conducting the war on poverty with not being willing to "discuss their plans, programs and problems more openly, more candidly and more temperately," and with misleading the public and especially the needy youth who apply for help by giving the false impression that the programs are fully operative and effective. The article maintains that Washington is increasingly oversensitive to criticism of public policy and tends to make, "grossly exaggerated claims of potential strength," partly as a result of concern with how Congress might react. In fact, the antipoverty programs are still in an experimental stage, and predictions cannot be made accurately--hence the "need for constant debate and analysis."

143. I. E. Harrison, "State Employment Service and the Attitudes of Unemployable Dropouts," Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 35 (Spring, 1966), 134-43.

The article reports a survey research project involving disadvantaged youth who were marked "presently unemployable" after applying to the local state employment service office. Most of the respondents were discouraged by the failure of the state employment service to refer them to jobs. Most recognized as well that their age, lack of education (they were all dropouts), and inexperience made it difficult for them to find jobs. Since the employment service meant to them long lines, prying questions, application forms, but no jobs to show for it, they drifted off to look for work on their own, alternating between periods of energy and longer periods of despondency. Responses to a structured questionnaire indicated that the youths, and their parents for them, wanted jobs very badly; and most of them

had no grandiose notions about jobs, knowing that they were unprepared for any but lower level functions. It was suggested that the employment service make more real contact with these youths and provide temporary holding activities--group discussions and athletic activities. These youths were referred to the Youth and Work Project where it was discovered that they had more than adequate intelligence, but had trouble with activity requiring close movement and concentration (reading, writing), sometimes because of poor eyesight or neurological problems. It was found that they welcomed counseling and needed sympathy and above all that they needed permanent programs leading to employment. The employment service needed to change its approach if it was to become an employment office.

144. M. Greene, "Open Letter to Robert S. McNamara, Secretary of Defense," Teachers College Record, Vol. 68 (November, 1966), 150-4.

The letter is a critical essay attacking the assumptions upon which was based Secretary McNamara's statement that "through the application of advanced educational and medical techniques," the military would be able to salvage in the first year of a program 40,000 and each subsequent year 100,000 military rejectees, and that the military could thereby prepare them "for productive roles in society." The criticism first takes up the question whether military education is really education at all; it is training and is not concerned with explanation, reason and argument as means for enlisting "the cognitive and critical energies of the individual." Military discipline and indoctrination are questionable means for dealing with the problem of alienation and disillusionment among, for instance, the group of youths accepted into the Job Corps. The gamut of welfare service and educational programs do not create more jobs. Education and the learning of a skill do not guarantee jobs; only increased economic growth and social insurance for individuals can alleviate the problems of socio-economic disadvantage. How then can the Secretary's claim be justified when there is no direct correlation between military training and the nature of the labor market or the nature of the problems of the disadvantaged? Nor is it clear that salvage by the military "can contribute to the quality of individual lives:" soldiers are not in a position to demand justification for what they are told to do.

145. F. Wiener, "Employment of Youth," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, Vol. 13 (Summer, 1965), 251-6.

The article proposes basic changes in the relationship between economic, educational and government institutions to provide more realistic adjustments between the education and training of youth and the establishment of actual job opportunities. It maintains that social resources, social welfare institutions, arousing public reaction, and changing the school system cannot effect a change of the type and magnitude required to solve the youth unemployment problem. Industry and business must increase their connections with education to render it more flexible in meeting economic needs. Armed services should establish more contact with the educational and economic institutions to provide smoother entry into military service and from that back

into education or the economic world. Since government already subsidizes so many activities in the economic world, government contracts should include subsidies for the mandatory hiring of youth. Also public works programs should be expanded to provide more work. These activities must involve communities as well as States and the Federal government. The overriding concern, however, should be for pre-planning to achieve a systematic approach to the problem.

146. R. F. Berdie, "Counselor and His Manpower Responsibilities," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 38 (February, 1960), 458-63.

The article accepts that, "personal adjustment and productivity, mental health and manpower are intimately related..." Two major approaches are described:

1. "...identification of social objectives and the distribution of individuals on the basis of their abilities and potentials into pursuits that lead to these social objectives;" and,
2. determination of social objectives at least partly by the needs and potentials of the individual so that occupations may be planned which may relate best to the development of individual potentials.

Most counseling falls between these two extremes. Hence, the counselor must not only explain the possibilities of various types of careers and the jobs relevant to such careers but he must also help the individual to realize the nature of his needs and abilities so that he can best choose between the alternatives presented. Counseling must begin early, since often the ostensible motivations of students are not a true reflection of needs and abilities but rather may be reactions to either negative or positive aspects of his background which produce illusions about competence or incompetence, on the part of the student, in dealing with one or another aspect of school and career objectives.

147. Edwin F. Estle, "The Role of Public Vocational Education (Survey in 24 firms in the Greater Boston area conducted by the Federal Reserve Bank of Boston)," Federal Reserve Boston (New England Business Review), (January, 1967), 2-6.

The article serves to emphasize the importance of contact with employers and potential employers to determine more exactly how they view vocational training in terms of their own needs and practices.

148. Burr D. Coe and J. Henry Zanzalari, "Vocational Technical School Graduates... Ten Years Later," American Vocational Journal, Vol. 40 (April, 1965), 14-17.

Evaluation of the program was, in this case, achieved through a follow-up study of a graduating class of 108 students from 3 different schools. Having this kind of study in mind, guidance counselors maintained close contact with the graduates through alumni activities, thus achieving a participation rate of 91 percent in the survey. Though the questionnaire was precoded, room was left, as well, for open-ended

responses. Information on employment, martial status, location and military service was requested not just for the tenth year but for each year of the ten-year period. This enabled the evaluators to study the results of the program over a continuum and made statistics more meaningful.

149. Merritt C. Oelke,"We Must Reach the Non-College Bound," American Vocational Journal, Vol. 41 (October, 1966), 16-17, 56-7.

The role of vocational education must include an attempt to remove from non-professional vocations their low status in the eyes of business, industry and education. College education has become a status symbol and has dominated the occupational hierarchy insofar as it is the means to professional standing. The resulting downgrading of vocational training has made it seem to be a poor choice, a choice of last resort. This prejudicial kind of judgement has very undesirable repurcussions. "...several times as many students plan to go into professional vocations as there are job opportunities..." and "...75 percent of the occupational information literature in the past has been about occupations covering only about 10 percent of the jobs available..." The fact that low status has meant low visibility and low acceptability has prevented a rationalization of the relationship between training and the labor market and has arbitrarily placed non-professionals at a disadvantage. What is needed is a program of "communication designed to alter the individual and societal perception of occupational values."

150. Gene Bottoms, "Essentials in a Student Personnel Service," American Vocational Journal, Vol. 41 (October, 1966), 18-20.

Low enrollment in the 20 Georgia area vocational schools was an especially important problem, considering the increasing need for technical and skilled workers. It was found that there were few applicants because there had not been nearly enough information on the nature of the schools, the training afforded, or what students could expect after training; admission procedures were not made clear. This kind of information had to be provided to counselors in local high schools and community agencies if students were to be able to take advantage of the facilities.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHIES

I. General Background.

1. Benjamin Schlesinger. Poverty in Canada and the United States: Overview and Annotated Bibliography. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1966, 211 pp.

2. Federation Employment and Guidance Service. A Guide to Current Resources for Antipoverty Programs: A Selected Bibliography, Revised Edition. New York: Richard J. Bernhard Memorial Library, Federation Employment and Guidance Service, May 1966, 44 and 6 leaves.

3. Robert E. Booth, Theodore Manheim, Diana A. Satterthwaite and Gloria L. Dardarian. Culturally Disadvantaged: A Bibliography and Keywork-Out-of Context (KWOC) Index. Detroit Michigan: Wayne State University Press, 1967, VII + 807 pp.

II. Background on Youth.

4. American Education Research Association, "Growth, Development and Learning; Reviews the Literature for the Three-Year Period Since December 1958," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 31 (December, 1961), pp. 451-546.

5. National Education Association. Research Division. Preliminary Bibliography on Youth. Washington: National Education Association, 1935, 26 pp.

6. L. A. Menefee and M. M. Chambers. American Youth: An Annotated Bibliography. Washington: The American Council on Education, 1938, 493 pp.

7. Taconic Foundation. Annotated Bibliography for Youth and Work Project. New York: Taconic Foundation, 1962, 38 pp.

8. Mobilization for Youth. Training Department. Master Annotated Bibliography of the Papers of Mobilization for Youth. New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., 1965, 81 pp.

III. Contributions to the Subject of Youth From Psychology and Sociology.

9. J. Kagan and H. A. Moss, "Personality and Social Development Family and Peer Influence," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 31 (December, 1961), pp. 463-74.

10. I. Torgoff, "Personality and Social Development: Societal Influence," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 31 (December, 1961), pp. 475-86.

11. W. C. Morse and C. O. Dyer, "The Emotionally and Social Handicapped," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 33 (February, 1963), pp. 109-125.

12. R. F. Peck and H. G. Richek, "Personality and Social Development: Family Influences," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 34 (December, 1964), pp. 574-587.

13. R. L. Spaulding, "Personality and Social Development: Peer and School Influence," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 34 (December, 1964), pp. 588-598.

14. J. C. McCullers and W. T. Plant, "Personality and Social Development: Cultural Influences," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 34 (December, 1964), pp. 599-610.

15. S. M. Miller, Betty L. Saleen and Herrington Bryce. School Dropouts. Syracuse: Syracuse University, Youth Development Center, 1964, 131 pp.

16. E. W. Gordon, "Characteristics of Socially Disadvantaged Children," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 35 (December, 1965), pp. 377-388.

17. B. Balow, "Emotionally and Socially Handicapped; Social and Psychological Correlates," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 36 (February, 1966), pp. 123-4.

18. L. M. Smith and P. F. Kleine, "The Adolescent and His Society," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 36 (October, 1966), pp. 424-36.

19. C. W. Sherif, "Adolescence: Motivation, Attitudinal and Personality Factors," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 36 (October, 1966), pp. 437-449.

20. D. E. Hunt, "Adolescence: Cultural Deprivation, Poverty, and the Dropout," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 36 (October, 1966), pp. 463-73.

21. National Society for the Study of Education. Sixty-fifth Yearbook, Part I, Social Deviancy Among Youth. Chicago: University of Chicago Press (For The Society), 1966, 434 pp. bibliography.

IV. The Education of Disadvantaged Youth.

22. American Educational Research Association, "Vocational, Technical, and Practical Arts Education; Reviews the Literature for the Six-Year Period Since October, 1956," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 32 (October, 1962), pp. 363-432.

23. G. F. Vars and W. T. Lowe, "Societal Forces Influencing Curriculum Decisions," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 33 (June, 1963) pp. 254-267.

24. D. Gottleib, "Sociology of Education," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 34 (February, 1964), pp. 62-70.

25. Elmer Van Egmond, "Social Policy and Education," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 34 (February, 1964), pp. 85-100.

26. P. W. Jackson and N. Strattner, "Meaningful Learning and Retention: Noncognitive Variables," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 34 (December, 1964), pp. 513-529.

27. J. B. Ralph, "Language Development in Socially Disadvantaged Children," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 35 (December, 1965), pp. 389-400.

28. J. M. Karp and I. Sigel, "Psychoeducational Appraisal of Disadvantaged Children," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 35 (December, 1965), pp. 401-412.

29. E. H. Grotberg, "Learning Disabilities and Remediation in Disadvantage Children," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 35 (December, 1965), pp. 413-425.

30. D. A. Wilkerson, "Programs and Practices in Compensatory Education for Disadvantaged Children; Dropout Programs," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 35 (December, 1965), pp. 437-8.

31. Mobilization for Youth, Inc. Training Department. Bibliography on the Education of Socially Disadvantaged Children and Youth. New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., 1965, 36 pp.

32. R. S. Jones, "Instructional Problems and Issues," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 36 (October, 1966), pp. 414-423.

V. Guidance and Counseling for Disadvantaged Youth.

33. G. R. Walz, "Vocational Development Process," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 33 (April, 1963), pp. 197-204.

34. Ruth St. John Freeman, and Harrop A. Freeman. Counseling: A Bibliography. (With Annotations). New York: Scarecrow Press, 1964, 986 pp.

35. R. Hoppock, "Best Books of 1965 on Vocational Guidance," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. 50 (March, 1966), pp. 70-9.

36. American Educational Research Association, "Guidance, Counseling and Personnel Services; Reviews the Literature for the Three-Year Period Since April, 1963," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 36 (April, 1966), pp. 203-334.

37. M. Peters and W. W. Wattenberg, "Adolescence: Behavior Disorders and Guidance," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 36 (October, 1966), pp. 474-84.

INDEX OF AUTHORS FOR THE ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

	Entry Number
Ahlstrom, W. M	24
American Vocational Journal	132
Arnstein, G.	98
Ausubel, David P.	46
Bealer, Robert C.	59
Berdan, N. P.	115
Berdie, R. F.	146
Berg, Ivar	141
Bogan, Forrest A.	14, 66, 74
Bordin, E. S.	28
Bordua, D. J.	23
Bottoms, Gene	150
Bower, E. M.	25
Brearly, H. C.	50
Bryan, G. O.	118
Burchinal, L. G.	21
Business Education World	123
Byerly, C. L.	82
Cangemi, J. P.	88
Carey, J. T.	86
Carmical, L.	35
Carpenter, K. S.	105
Catterall, C. D.	91
Chamberlain, G. L.	91
Cloward, Richard A.	45, 138
Coe, Burr D.	128, 148
Cooper, Sophia	69, 70
Coster, J. K.	33
Cowhig, J. D.	21
Davis, D. A.	93
Della-Dora, D.	44
Dentler, R. A.	9
Downings, G. L.	85
DuFresne, R. A.	87
Duncan, J. W.	94
Elder, G. H. (Jr.)	57, 104,
Elliott, D. S.	41
Estle, Edwin F.	147
Falk, G. J.	22
Fernandez, G.	126
Foltman, Felician F.	63
Freedman, M. K.	31, 55, 140,
Friedenberg, Edgar Z.	8
Gale, S.	108
Geist, H.	53
Giddings, M. G.	11
Ginzburg, Eli	12
Goodman, Paul	3, 61
Gradoni, E. J.	122
Greene, B. I.	38
Greene, M.	144
Hall, N. E. (Jr.)	92
Haller, A. O.	58
Hamel, Harvey R.	64, 66, 75
Hand, H. C.	119
Hannah, Arlene	10
Harrison, I. E.	143
Hart, V. S.	135
Haskew, L. D.	127
Hatfield, R. B.	108
Havighurst, R. J.	32, 78, 79
Hentoff, Nat	1
Herman, Melvin	137
Hickman, R. C.	101
Hillson, H. T.	90
Hillson, Maurie	34
Houston, G. C.	97
Jones, N. A.	106
Josselyn, I. M.	39
Journal of Negro Education, The	7
Kapp, Louise	142
Knudsen, D. D.	48
Kuvlesky, William P.	59
Kvaraceus, W. C.	49, 76
Levine, D. U.	116

INDEX OF AUTHORS FOR THE ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

	Entry Number
Lichter, S. O.	77
Liddle, G. P.	27, 83
Lingo, T. D.	113
Litsett, L.	52
Lohman, J. D.	86
Long, N. J.	84
Lopez-Rey, Manuel	29
Lowens, M.	134
Lynton, Edith	13
Mackler, B.	11
MacLennan, B. W.	111
Marburger, C. L.	89
Massimo, J. L.	110
Matthews, C. V.	37
Mauck, J.	133
Millard, T. L.	26
Miller, S. M.	139
Montesano, N.	53
Morse, W. C.	84
Myers, F. C.	90
Oelke, Merritt C.	149
Ontell, Robert	45, 138
Ornstein, A. C.	6
Pearson, D. T.	120
Perrella, Vera C.	14, 15, 73
Phi Delta Kappan	81
Pope, L.	99
Popper, S. H.	51
Purcell, Francis P.	34
Ramsey, W. L.	131
Reeve, Claudia L.	117
Rein, Martin	139
Rhodes, Lewis	18
Riessman, Frank	10, 80
Rosenfeld, Carl	65
Ruff, E. E.	107
Runge, W. B.	122
Samler, J.	60
Samuelson, C. O.	120
Savitsky, C.	30
Schiffman, Jacob	71, 72
School Shop	124
Schreiber, D.	114
Seeley, J. R.	4
Selden, W.	125
Shaw, F.	36, 95
Shore, M. F.	110
Silberman, Charles E.	2, 62
Simeon, N. F.	100
Singell, Larry D.	56
Slotkin, H.	96
Smith, W. R.	97
Spence, W. P.	17
Steinberg, E. R.	47
Swanstrom, Thomas E.	67
Thomas, S.	48
Thompson, O. E.	54
Tucker, James F.	16
Tuel, J. K.	20
Tumlin, I. W.	127
Urich, T.	133
Vander Werf, L. S.	121
Voss, H. L.	40
Waldman, Elizabeth	15
Walsh, J. P.	125
Washington, R. O.	103
Wattenberg, W. W.	5
Weyant, J. Thomas	136
Wiener, F.	145
Williams, B. R.	43
Wood, H. B.	112
Woollat, L. H.	42
Yoas, S.	102
Young, N.	19
Zack, J. B.	129, 130
Zanzalari, J. Henry	148
Zivan, M.	109

INDEX OF AUTHORS FOR THE SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

	Entry Number
American Council on Education	6
American Educational Research Association	4, 22, 36
Balow, B.	17
Booth, Robert E.	3
Chambers, M. M.	6
Dyer, C. O.	11
Federal Employment and Guidance Service	2
Freeman, Harrop A.	34
Freeman, Ruth St. John	34
Gordon, E. W.	16
Gottlieb, D.	24
Grotberg, E. H.	29
Hoppock, R.	35
Hunt, D. E.	20
Jackson, P. W.	26
Jones, R. S.	32
Kagan, J.	9
Karp, J. M	28
Kleine, P. F.	18
Lowe, W. T.	25
Manheim, Theodore	3
McCullers, J. C.	14
Menefee, L. A.	6
Miller, S. M.	15
Mobilization for Youth	8, 31
Morse, W. C.	11
Moss, H. A.	9
National Education Association	5
National Society for the Study of Education	21
Peck, R. F.	12
Peters, M.	37
Plant, W. T.	14
Raph, J. B.	27
Richek, H. G.	12
Saleen, Betty L.	15
Schlesinger, Benjamin	1
Sherif, C. W.	19
Sigel, I.	28
Smith, L. M.	18
Spaulding, R. L.	13
Strattner, N.	26
Taconic Foundation	7
Torgoff, I.	10
Van Egmond, Elmer	25
Vars, G. F.	23
Von Bryce, Herring	15
Walz, G. R.	33
Wattenberg, W. W.	37
Wilkerson, D. A.	30